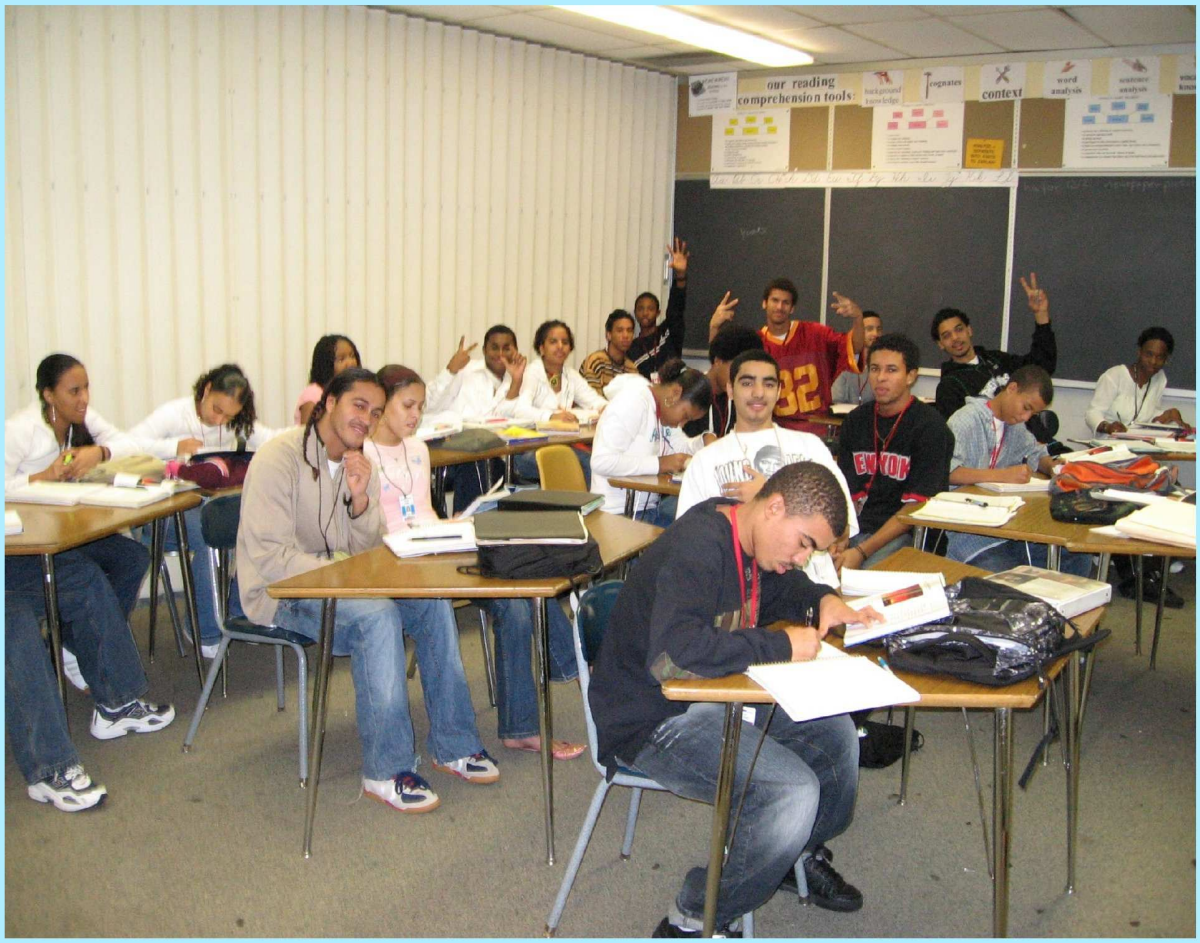
Transformation of Public Education

English Language Learners (ELL)



by Joaquim Manuel Andrade (dr. azágua)

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FOREWARD

The Transformation of Public Education provides fascinating portraits of the governance changes now occurring in America's major urban school systems, along with a trenchant discussion of the extent to which these changes signal a new direction for American education. The book will make a strong contribution to research on the politics of education in the United States and shows the promise of applying insights from the new institutionalism to research on educational governance.

In *The Transformation of Public Education,* Joaquim Manuel Andrade argues that urban education reform can best be understood as a long process of institutional change, rather than as a series of failed projects. Era model of public education—apolitical governance, local control, professional hierarchy, and the logic of confidence—and show that recent developments in school governance have challenged virtually all of these assumptions.

INTRODUCTION

As Sir Ken Robinson puts it, “Reforming education isn't enough. The real task is transformation. America urgently needs systems of education that live and breathe in the 21st century. This is a large task and it can't be put off.”

To face the future, America needs to celebrate and develop the diverse talents of all of its people -- young and old alike. It needs to cultivate creativity and innovation, systematically and with confidence, in business, in culture and in rebuilding its post industrial communities. It needs to provide leadership at home and abroad in promoting deeper forms of cultural understanding and cooperation. These are the real basics. Basic to all of them is a different view of human talent and ability, and of the real conditions in which people flourish.

Economically and culturally, the future of America and of the rest of world lies now in a different direction. It will depend on the vitality, diversity and creativity of all its people. The good news is that there are many strong, practical and highly effective new forms of education that point the way. We just need to keep on digging and looking for answer.

Yes, we can!



The road to success is not straight. There is a curb called Failure, a loop called Confusion; speed bumps called Friends; red lights called Enemies;caution lights called Family. You will have flats called jobs. But, if you have a spare called Determination; an engine called Perseverance; insurance called Faith, and a driver called Jesus, you will make it to a place called Success!!

- Unknown

A NEW DAY
A New Beginning

Classes resumed. It's time to take familiar gestures in disuse for a few weeks. Time to be back in front of an unknown group of students who expect you to tell them something. Say my name and never really know what to say next, but things always end up compose. When I think about what I should say, never say what we previously thought. And let me have it.

Fortunately, in a few days already know each other perfectly. Never need much time to know each other well ... What is not said now will come later and will remain. Know - no need to tell them now - that'll make you tired. Know that to get to the poem "Korda Mininu, Korda" (Wake up Kid, Wake up!) we must exercise before we begin on Cells and Life.

Classes resumed. Exactly one year ago I was a year younger. After 365 days passed I was charmed and disenchanted; I got tired; I learned what I never wanted to learn; I discovered more things that I am no longer able to do. I aged. Time went by me, but not for those who are now sitting in front of me. That's life, and life must go on. Life is beautiful in its own right.
Because they have a tremendous momentum and cannot sit still for sixty-six minutes long, they'll be moving and working in pairs or groups in a dynamic classroom - ours.

Classes resumed. And in each one of the students of this group - among whom I do not feel lost because - there's a smile, a promise and a dedication.

And I am filled with hope, because you cannot notice that much in us and in our bad example. Because it can happen that you grow weary of the rot we serve them on television and dedicate themselves to have friends, listening to music, reading, painting, writing, a healthy nonsense.
Perhaps because many of them meet over the next years for guidance for their strength, one north to their ambition, a shoulder to their discouragements: someone unafraid to tell them the truth about life, love, realistic goals, and determination to achieve.

TAKE YOUR RICHES WITH YOU

Living in the human man-made world that we do, one is constantly striving, struggling, searching, acquiring, spending, saving - all with the hopes that it will bring him satisfaction and/or pleasure, only to find he has to continue doing the same thing because the satisfaction eludes him after a brief temporary state. Tomorrow one may find himself without his stored up treasures of belongings due to any number of circumstances.

For the entrepreneur, once he has acquired success, even after losing all, can take the education and experience he has gained, reapply it, and build all over again. People seeking education to qualify for better jobs may be a practical way of life while we're living here on earth, but what about after? What good is a university degree except to those who place value on it here?

If one travels, he takes nothing lasting with him except his consciousness. When one moves, he takes nothing lasting except his consciousness. Everything physical can be destroyed and removed. As we mature, we carry with us our consciousness. If we start all over again, we have our consciousness - it never leaves us. But it is up to us to develop it higher and higher so we can take our wealth of understanding into the next realm of life. If one does not develop his consciousness to a spiritual level, what does one have to take with him? The same highly developed state of consciousness will benefit one wherever he/she goes -here on earth or hereafter.

It should be the responsibility of every parent to instill in his or her child that they are first a child of God and the rest of our lives here as a mortal would be to get to know Him alright - get to know our Father better. Everything that God is, we have inherited. Why can't people realize this? Why do we have to believe we are separated from God and flounder on our own? What in the world is so valuable here on earth that we have to sacrifice our true riches for it? What in the world is so important here on earth that we have to sacrifice our time in developing our spiritual nature for it? What are we taking into the spiritual realm of life but life itself! That life is a spiritual consciousness. We ought to be developing it, developing it, developing it. Only by doing so can we take our riches with us - riches, not made by hands, but eternal in the heavens.

BE HAPPY!

Life is full of surprises where your mission is to live, some moments can last as little and stay in your memory for a long time, and some people can do very little part of your life and be considered forever. I imagine a day when all people have the right to be happy, even if only for a moment, to have the opportunity to feel what they really want and believe that dreams are not nonsense. Sometimes you realize that appearances can be deceiving and you may suffer a lot from it! Time is one thing that does not allow back to back, and then only regret what you did not enjoy every little second of life to be saved forever in your memory.

Over time we learn that to err is human, we all make mistakes and sometimes we even certain that lowering the head and apologize; And that sometimes you have to listen to what people have to say; Over time we learn to play in this life, we learn that every fall we must lift up the head; Learned that not every morning is sunny, and that not everything in life is as we want; Over time people know, and discovered feelings; Over time we learn to value every second we have, for we learn that in a second everything can change; Life goes on and we find out who our true friends are; and sometimes that unknown people value you more, than those who are with you every day; Over time we also errs more hits and sooner or later, we learn that we have to accept each other as is. And that no one is better than anyone at least in this life; over time life itself will teach how to live.

Change; grow, not for others but for yourself. Fight, continue, believe, do not give up so easily to the obstacles imposed by society, when you want, dreams and truly believe, your dreams can become reality. Do not hang your head in defeat, known to be humble and apologize at the right time. Learn to thank all those who helped you get where you are now. Never let the thoughts or words of outsiders harm you, what really matters is the opinion of those who love you, after all they are the ones who know their secrets and put up with you all the time and those who judge you without knowing certainly have based their arguments on hearsay invented to harm you.

Every day is a new dawn coming of a new day, with new expectations and new goals to be traced. Laugh is risking looking foolish. Weep is to risk appearing sentimental. Reach out is to risk getting involved. Exposing your feelings is to risk showing your true self. Defend their ideas and dreams before the crowd is to risk losing people. To love is to risk not being reciprocated. To live is to risk dying. Trust is running the risk of disappointment. Try is to risk failure. But risks must be run, because the greatest danger is to risk nothing. There are people who are not at risk, do nothing, have nothing and are nothing. They may avoid suffering and disappointments,

but they achieve nothing, feel nothing, do not change, do not grow, do not love, and do not live. Chained by their attitudes, they turn into slaves; they deprive themselves of their freedom. Only the person who takes risks is free.

Sometimes a fake smile can be a comfort for ourselves. Sometimes we do not give value to friends, family, loved ones, but when we lose, we see how much they are missing. It hurts so much that sometimes we want to take someone of our thoughts and feel all right. Crying is like taking a weight of consciousness with his hands. Or simply surrender even more of a headache. Well it is to love, laugh, sing, live like there is no tomorrow. You walk around head high, be yourself. Loving friends, do them well, so you feel good too.

Why didn't we choose who we will be when you grow up but the future shows us who we become when you grow up? Why have disappointments, but yet we insist on what we know will work. Why didn't we choose which family to belong to, choose our own names, something that is so ours, personal, but it was given by someone else, even by someone outside the family? Why cry if we know that the sunrise is beautiful, and the stars still shine? Why do we want to scream when we cannot, or when it is not the right time? Why when a tear fall and we want to try to insure it does not work and it runs in our face? Why nothing is as we wanted it to be? Why people do not understand us? Why must we always do the right things and never skip a bit the rules of life? Why sometimes we want something we cannot have, like the best dad in the world, the most loving mother, the coolest brothers, that friend we can tell everything and trust blindly that perfect girlfriend or boyfriend? Why?

So many questions that would not fit here, but they are questions that have an answer. Because there is no one perfect in this world, neither I nor you. This is your moment, we take it in the best possible way, every minute of your lives as if it were your last, laugh or cry, be happy or be sad, love or hate, but the important thing is to be happy. Keep your losses as a lesson, for there in front of you do right and head up! Tears are made to comfort our hearts, crying is good; it's like taking a weight off of us, something that is to hurt us! Therefore, the chore as it takes, because only tears know why so much pain. Thinking about the future is even better, all we want to do, the way we want, where we want and not get why we want. When you do something do not think often, because who thinks too much ends up doing nothing. Live without fear of living!

Vicious Circle

Dealing with school discipline issues can be challenging and frustrating. You need to balance creating a supportive, orderly learning environment with assigning reasonable consequences for misbehavior in ways that keep students in class and engaged in learning. When considering school discipline, you may find yourself asking a number of questions, for example:

- What do I do when policies dictate consequences that exacerbate the situation?
- What's the best way to hold students to high expectations and help them learn from their missteps?
- How can I address the root causes that contribute to student misbehavior and are barriers to student success?
- How can I intervene earlier to get students on a pathway to success rather than one of disengagement and school failure?

Regardless of the discipline challenges you face or the student population you serve, you can find help to guide you to create an environment where students can learn and thrive.

- Participate in skill-building activities, such as interpreting discipline and school climate data, rewriting punitive discipline policies to make them supportive, and reviewing a resource map of current discipline-related activities to identify gaps
- Hear from communities across the country that have turned their schools around
- Explore five key strategies that will enable you to create a Positive School Discipline climate in your school
- Learn to plan a systemic approach at all levels, from the classroom to the community, using all the resources at your disposal—which will help you bring stakeholders in your community together to create a climate where students can thrive both academically and socially

Discipline in the Classroom

Teacher attitudes that facilitate discipline

1. Never talk to the class, while not all are silent.

2. Addressing students with language and clear voice, with some pauses and expressiveness to realize that what is said at first.

3. Never yell. A cry should be a rare step which is sometimes needed. Do not forget the screams discredit the teacher. Orders like: "Shut up," are useless.

4. Never forget this rule of thumb: If just one look, not saying a word; is just a word, not pronouncing a sentence.

5. Strive to maintain the presence of mind, serenity and security. Students notice the slightest lack of the will, uncertainty or excitement of the teacher. If this goes on, the class is "lost"

6. Do not pass "nor a" and act from the beginning. Nothing hurts more students and a teacher who discredits the possible "injustice." This is the case of a lack pass a student and, soon after, to punish the other by a similar lack.

7. Caring for the postures, gestures, facial expressions and vocal; all this positively or negatively affects the students.

8. Try to maintain control of the entire class. Even if you drive only a part of the class should have the rest under control. One must avoid at all costs that a student take the unsuspecting teacher.

10. Never use sarcasm or irony malevolent. With immediate effect, but disastrous long-term consequences.

11. Becoming accessible to the student, placing themselves at their level, but not childish or

patronizing. Speak to them with kindness, affection, sometimes with sweetness; always keeping a discreet distance they accept and even desire.

12. If ever a conflict (which should be rare and exceptional) with a student or with the class, seeking ways to remedy this "wound", through some graceful exit, gesture or friendly attitude happen. They have an epidermal sense of justice, but also a great ability to forgive and forget wrongs.

13. Knowing maintain the balance between "hard" and kindness. The playfulness and the joy of the teacher should be manifested, though, in all circumstances; students have to notice. The most dislikes of students have their origin in cozy little faces or attitudes.

14. The correction must be:

a) silent: speak softly and only for necessity;

b) quiet: no disturbance, impatience or excitement;

c) in order to provoke insight of the student: the student contain their impulses, falls itself and resume the way;

d) affectionate: "if you would persuade, get it here-the more affectionate sentiments that the speeches."

15. Avoid uttering threats, which cannot be fulfilled by the masterful prestige that entails.

16. Have the least possible. Ideally, to achieve minimum orders. Have the necessary and with the certainty that we will be obeyed.

17. Some quotes:

"They are the silent vigilance and prudence of a master who set the order in a school and not the hardness and the blow."

"... the school will have a little sanatorium, library and cloister, which means they will be plunged

into silence. A silence that will not be interrupted by the teacher's voice, nor campainhas1 nor piano exercises ... penetrated an entire silence of intense activity, back-and-forth on tiptoe, discreet whispers and joy contained This silence implies a whole set of conditions: appropriate furniture, motives of activity to stimulate the work of intelligence, and omnipresent but invisible "teacher (LUBIENSKA OF Lenval).

"Avoid" expression without force, without clarity or accuracy "(Plato), as contrary to the silence."

"One must cultivate his words, to come out with quiet tough as foundations, and the Christian teacher even more, because he intends to work for eternity."

"A child will practice the virtue seriously, if we can not make it to her lovely and seductive."
"They contribute much to the attractiveness and therefore the child's attention, personality and mental attitudes of the teacher. Attitudes and emotions are very contagious. Enthusiast, cheerful and lively, teacher usually has attentive and interested students. A first condition of learning is interesting that teachers reflect on their attitudes and activities in sufficient sympathy and enthusiasm "

Teacher Attitudes To Promote The Relationship With Students

1. Plan and schedule classes as well. Do not rely on improvisation.

2. Always keep students busy because nothing promotes both discipline as having nothing to do.

3. Avoid focusing on a student, because the others will be left to themselves.

4. Avoid privileges in class. The school should be a place to combat privileges.

5. Do not show rigor. When you need to correct, do it naturally and safely.

6. Do not talk to strangers to class issues.

7. Approaching the students in a friendly manner, both within and outside the school.

8. Be aware of the particular problems of the students to be able to help them when needed.

9. If you make a warning, this is firm, but never cross the line of self-love and is preferably in private.

10. Search for a friendly, relaxed and serene environment.

11. Be consistent and do not justify the inconsistencies. While there is some inconsistency is best to honestly recognize it and rectify it.

12. If applies a punishment should be kept and fulfilled, unless there is a big misconception that warrants a change in attitude.

13. One should not punish without explaining clearly and explicitly the reason for the punishment.

14. Do not act in moments of anger and uncontrollable.

15. Avoid threats that cannot be met then, as this prestigious strip the teacher.

16. Team Leaders or group should collaborate to discipline in the class.

17. It should be lavish in stimuli recognition and all that good students do, though without exaggeration or ways that seem insincere.

18. Avoid punishing all students through the fault of one, unless there are general

19. Avoid attitudes of irony and sarcasm.

20. Be honest and frank with students.

21. Learning give students something, do not ask them forever.

WATCHING TELEVISION IN THE FAMILY

How to make the best use of television?

Specialists in family education offer us useful and practical advice, for using the TV as an effective means for the education of children. Television, used with discretion, can be an effective means for the education of our children. Nobody wants the best for their children than we parents. So we are forced to use television as a means more of the many that exist in our power to educate in values of life. And we have the right for it to be of quality and respects the right to grow up with dignity.

Children should be taught by parents see both rewarding and enriching television programs, such as those that do not see in your can degrade human dignity. If parents do not teach their children to watch television, who will?

We must teach children what not to 'watch TV', but watching TV programs. Thus we can prove the ability of selection and discrimination, which enable us to see what suits us and not see what is not appropriate in view. We should ask our children: 'What do you want to see? 'But not' 'They want to watch TV?' '.

To create a selection criterion, we must avoid being arrested on television when we are not watching a particular program. A good way to implement the above ideas is to have the remote at hand, the 'zapping', or the custom of constantly changing the channel, as this is contrary to the selection criteria that we create in our children watch TV.

Our children should not have a television in your room. This practice encourages the insulation and causes a dependence on television that is contrary to family life. We must remember that a disorderly dependence of television prevents the game from our children, their creativity and family life.

It is convenient to have a preset to view TV programs schedule. Like all things, the television must have 'their place' in family life, along with other activities.

The capacity for imitation that children have should be directed to the knowledge of actual and exemplary personalities (e.g. sportsmen, heroes of our history, outstanding poets, etc.), and not

for 'Imaginary Heroes' and nonexistent.

Throw the blame on television is an easy way out. Parents should not give up the fight to see that home is good television, always bearing in mind that belongs to us the duty and the responsibility to educate our children.

If possible, it is very convenient for parents to watch TV with their children. So that they can directly know the effects that produce programs that see them.
Not all programs are equally advantageous. We prefer that our children see those that have to do with the reveal of family values, love of nature, positive use of free time, study and development of the culture of the mind, etc., and not those superficial and baseless programs.

We parents must inform us of the content of television programs. Any program that includes eroticism, sexuality, violence, wickedness, promiscuity, crime, racism, etc. are not suitable for children. And parents should know it, and prevent their children from seeing. To acquire this knowledge, please consult the guidelines for qualification of programming that are published occasionally in various fora and magazines criterion.

We have to remember that children should learn moral values foremost in the field of family and socializing with others, and not with the characters and action of the television.

The fathers should make efforts to seek alternatives to television: sports, visits to museums and parks, theater sessions, video projections, foster family conversations, practicing solitary actions on behalf of others, etc.

The 'image culture' should reach children by means other than television exclusively, meant by photographs, exhibits, maps, reading, etc.
Inevitably, and despite our best efforts, there will be contrary to family values television content.

That is why we parents, we have to ensure that programs are analyzed and discussed at family gatherings, for example at meals. This not only enriches family communication, but is also a good way to support the education of our children, preventing them from taking root bad television content.

Families, little by little, can create a collection of videos with films and documentaries of interest to children. The commercials can be as dangerous as the bad television programs. Parents should be very attentive to that television does not make your kids superficial people or consumers of what is announced. One should never do if the advertising of games that incites violence, discrimination or racism.

We, parents, we must fight for any children's television program, conducted without ethics, without respect for the values and rights of children, to qualify as a crime under national law. The bad children's television, or "trash-programming " has its origin contempt for children as people.

We must not let our children see television junk. If these television programs are viewed by our children, will make confuse reality and fiction; They will disorient and be mistaken in understanding the value and meaning of life, and will deform their own conscience. Compromise with the poor quality of these television programs unsuitable for children, letting them see, equivalent to compromise and become an accomplice of those people who distort the values and rights of children.

We, parents, we must organize ourselves to demand a good television, infant schedules. The coarse attitudes, habits and anti-social behavior, obscene language, loss of sense of authority, vulgarity and frivolity, the right to conduct less correct, any disrespect for human life, etc., should be eliminated, especially programs that have children as recipients.

Faced with a child with low programming, and failed quality questionable, parents have a legitimate right to crank constructive criticism. So we should encourage good television, highlighting the good programs.

The parents and teachers should make their children understand that television is not necessary nor is it the only way to occupy your free time.
The example is an effective therapy. If parents watch much television, and television shoddy, with criteria that will prevent your children to see the programs that are negative for them?

Educating Teens

Proper scale of moral values converts the children in boys and girls with personality, and is the best antidote against the follies of adolescence. But it is not always easy to convey them these values.

All teens are more or less rebellious. For its natural craving for independence oppose the values and parental authority. Want to know why certain standards are imposed upon and where the boundary between good and evil is, and they need safe and reasonable answers.

Now it is here that many parents feel disoriented. Those that did not reflect deeply on the question of values, or you spent little time, do not know how to answer questions of their teens.

It is important that we realize that children need a clear moral orientation in adolescence, an orientation about the values that should govern your life. Most of the taunts of the children are actually a strategy to prove the consistency of the values of their parents.

Basically, most teenagers have the desire to grow and perform properly, but need clear, reliable explanations of why a thing to be correct and the other not. It is because they feel very insecure of themselves that are very critical about everything.

Although that may be reluctant to admit it, teenagers need clear guidance and complain.

WE HAVE NO TIME

We have no time for our children. We have time for many things, but do not have time for our children. Time is a scarce good, life is hard, we work a lot and so we cannot make quiet time to do math to money when approaching the end of the month.

We love our children very much, but do not have time to see them grow, to help them grow. Life is agitating. It is to give children the best working conditions that kill us. So we give them more things. That is why we are often working after hours.
The time is not enough for all ...

The truth is that we make excuses like these with great ease. With them we can soothe our conscience and even convince ourselves of our heroic role, almost worthy of a martyr those who suffer in silence for a lifetime for the good of humanity. However - let's be clear - we sow the world children who grew up without fathers: being forced to understand the world - and to understand themselves - in absolute solitude.

We should open our eyes to two things:

The children - while we have not completely spoiled - are up shit about all those wonderful things - and unnecessary - we can buy them with all the money we can make in the time that we should be home. Even if it's hottest toys at school, complete with ads on TV and everything. Even if it is the latest trend of technological facilities.

Prefer a good conversation with her father, a walk on Saturday afternoon, in a game the family will be. Because - while we have not corrupted with our materialism - they know very well, although they may not be able to explain, what is important is what a person is, not what a person has. Know this instinctively, just as we already knew and then forgot.

Secondly, we should understand that we have no right to live in the shadow of the excuse of not having time.
We have time.
We have time for what pleases us and not give us too much work.
The cafes are full of parents who do not have time to be with their children. And hairdressers and grocery shops are filled with long conversations, often idle.

Raising a child means more than giving him food and clothing and taking him to the doctor. There is a whole living - one live with the children - that should exist in everyday life. And in this constantly living side-by-side, one from the father poured in the person of his son, teaching him to look at the world, helping you to build your character and acquire virtues.

Giving life to a new being is just a start. You must then build it. And that's too much work. It is perhaps the hardest task in the world, but also the most beautiful.
It is our duty - and honor – to realize it.

BEYOND WORDS

The most important things are not truly learn in books or classes, or conferences, or in sermons. They are passed on from person to person through gestures, concrete behaviors through life examples.

The only way for a parent to teach a child to be honest is to be honest himself, whatever the cost, in all circumstances, despising all these easy ways - and false - to get ahead or to solve delicate problems. If he's not, he may well strive to give the child this huge sermons on virtue...

But if the father is honest, he does not even need to use words. We are all fed up of words. Words are a sterile coating that does not correspond to a real background. And have often been used by many people to deceive, to pretend, to illicitly achieve results.

Among these important things that are not learned by words, are the virtues and values. Teach naturally because they live what they learn: they do not think they are doing something extraordinary.

Do would not believe it – they would have to laugh at it - tell them if they are to make the world better and more beautiful, but that's what happens.

REWARD AND PUNISHMENT

Education is of transcendental importance and of great responsibility for parents. There are many men in the world who mourn the woes caused by faults and oversights of their parents.
In education, as in everything in life, gathering up what was sown. It is necessary to inculcate in children - gradually, as they will be able to assimilate - cleanliness, order, obedience, sacrifice, loyalty, spirit of service, honesty, knowledge resign, etc. etc.
And habituate them to behave well in everywhere, to do what is right even though it is distressing to flee from evil albeit seductive, (...) spontaneously and on their own initiative, even if no one watch or punish.
When they are older, it will be very difficult to acquire virtues which were not sown in them when they were little.
Children, for their proper development, need caresses from the outset. There have been studies and it was found that children treated perfectly in their vital needs in specialized centers, but with lack of affection, showed characteristic abnormalities.

Spoiled children

The children cannot be spoiled. The spoiled child becomes capricious and unsociable. This needs to bring them problems of acceptance among peers in school, and will hinder their psychological maturity. It is proven that the child is well accepted by peers, for their personal qualities, has a large percentage of probability of a good psychological maturity in the future.
The children cannot be spoiled, but we should not punish without reason. The punishment is inevitable because it is morally impossible that your children do not commit a fault which requires: "No punishment there is no possible education," says one of the most celebrated educators of our time, Foerster.

For punishment to be effective educational and should always be:
a) Timely: choosing the most propitious time to impose, after last anger in parents and children.
b) Fair: without exceeding the limits of what is reasonable.
c) Wise: let us not be carried away by anger.
d) Affectionate as: so that the child understands that the punishment is imposed for their good. Are not effectively punished except by those who love us and whom we love.

Corporal Punishment

Corporal punishment has its difficulties. Can generate outrage, anger, decreased sense of honor. Nerve children should not be punished bodily, because it runs the risk of increasing your nervousness. In girls, corporal punishment weakens the feeling of untouchability body, so precious to the modesty of his future life. Can sometimes be more effective than corporal punishment put him eating alone at a small table, facing the wall, or deprive him of a manifestation of usual care, or sweet you like, or the money that you usually give. Depends on age and circumstances.

Punishment

The punishment should facilitate the child the path of righteousness, obedience, application, etc., to make it a moral man. The punishment rather than to pay for misconduct must serve for the correction. To achieve that, it is not necessary that the child recognize the lack of justice and punishment. The punishment is much more valuable when the child accepts it voluntarily or when is he who imposes. After the application of punishment, peace must be made with the child as soon as possible.

It takes tact to correct effectively. Little is achieved with just hurt and humiliate. You need to cheer up. Awakening the sense of self-esteem. An effective correction should always leave open a door to hope of overcoming.

If we let him do what he wants, a day later he will interpret this as lack of interest by our own good. On the contrary, if we do We upset by expressing love and concern for him we will eventually win her heart. Say: I love you too much to allow you to do this, or have a cuddle with him after a punishment, restores harmony.

Love should be on top of mischief. A mother, after punishing the son, told him: "I'm not mad at you, but with your Treat". The son thanked him that punishment.

The prize

If it is important for a good education know how to handle the punishment, not the least know how to use the prize; e.g. praise.

The pedagogical reward can be of many forms: a look of approval, an affectionate gesture, a

word, granting an authorization desired, a gift, etc. But we must not be excessive in awards and accolades; because they would lose effectiveness and run would make the danger of selfish child, leading her to do well only with the intention of winning the prize and the reward.

The stimulus is more effective than scolding. Sometimes this is unavoidable, but its effectiveness will be greater if the child is accustomed to that you recognize the work well done, that you applaud the effort, although these efforts were not always crowned with success. All people who are sincerely grateful to the anima. Proper compliment, fair, timely, stimulates and educates for good.

The whole art of teaching is knowing smile and say NO to the children at the right time and accurate way.

Orders and Obedience

Before you know an order, think if it's convenient. Do not order too many orders and never give contradictory ones. The father and the mother should always be in agreement with regard to orders and punishments. Both should never be contradicting each other. And orders must be clear, so that the child understands.

They should not be given too many orders. Or deny them things of nothing. Throughout the family training, it is worth winning an important battle than a hundred unimportant skirmishes. You must always leave their children a field of autonomy. Do not forget that children need to assert themselves.

If the child is able to impose its will once again do not forget, and will always try to get it again. The child should know that there are occasions where the useless cries and cries. And you, by your side, also meet the rewards and punishments that may compromise you. They are disorienting for children, and fatal in education, these parents who have, threaten and promise many things ... and then not turn any of it into reality, no rational reason: the reprimand announced should not suppress without a cause.

But be careful that the punishment does not correspond to our bad mood, but the seriousness of the offense and the responsibility of the child. After the child has recognized the guilt, and the punishment was accepted, this decrease is very educational with the promise of amendment.

STRESS AND SOLITUDE

The stress and loneliness predispose adolescents to aggressive behavior in the classroom.

Many teens today suffer tensions and frustrations before which are very alone and helpless. Thus was born the angry rebellion, the very insecure people, which sometimes leads to transgressive and violent behaviors.
It turns out that the journey from childhood to adulthood usually take place now with less education company with less equipment and rules of conduct than a few years ago, which contributes to increase the stress of transition typical of this stage of life.

Relationship with affective needs

This increase is a result of the stress of living in a broken home or belong to a family where, in fact, there is no family life. Currently, many parents give their children everything they ask for them in the material field, but do not give them time unhurried, moral criteria, emotional support or good examples. Teenagers, to build a personality that is emerging, are in need of models with whom to identify, but do not always find them in the family.
On the contrary, outside of it are a multitude of reference points that disorients. The model for many teenagers is quite poor: who is the "arranges the books" prematurely to get a million dollar contract as a footballer or as a runway model before age 25.

Parental expectations

The stress is compounded by the unrealistic expectations of some parents installed the "culture of success". Want, at all costs, winners sons; require them to be the best in the class, that make a college career that they could not do or what is fashionable without putting the question of whether the children have the capacity or interest to do so. Often these children end up being destroyed from within, if blame themselves for not having been able to match what was expected of them.

A violent scene in every 3 minutes

The teenagers of today were born and raised in a society where increasingly there is a tendency to solve problems through violence. We notice that there is social tolerance for violent behavior: is to create a climate of attraction to violence through television, films and videos.
There comes a time when teenagers no longer distinguish between the real and the fictional violence: can see the events of the newscast as if it were a thriller or adventure.

Compulsory schooling

Who does not want or is not able, to study is required to do so, which gives rise to many cases of maladjustment in class. The misfits become violent, and project their aggression to the environment of the class.
The classroom is the ideal stage (scenario and has assured the public) so that adolescents can represent aggression that was generated outside.

Permissive parenting

But there are other frustrations that can result from being in school: one is that adolescents who experience throughout childhood home received a permissive education, without any requirement: accustomed to doing what they please and not to do it they do not like, get irritated by having to adapt to a work plan and a minimum standards of living, good education and discipline.

Conclusion

The violence within schools require a deeper analysis is necessary to deepen in their personal, family and environmental causes, and preventive measures type. Better safe than sorry. This implies seriously educate parents and teachers on issues of education and psychology of adolescence. Teach them to see the teenager in a positive way, discovering the function and the great possibilities of this stage of life; prepare them to meet the emotional needs of young people and to form their will; help them educate teens on values such as peace, life, respect, tolerance and solidarity.

LEARNING TO LIVE

We can turn our lives into a patient, confident and exciting learning process. Learn to accept ourselves fully as we are, without lying, without seeking pretexts, without seeking to blame. By accepting us, we begin to change our lives.

Search do the best we can in every moment, without negative charges without unreal expectations, without unbearable pressures.

Living in the present, the pace possible in time possible, the possible forms.
We live best when we try to integrate everything, relate everything with confidence and humility. With the confidence that we can go far beyond where we are, we can fulfill ourselves in all dimensions of life.

With humility, knowing that we are fragile, that we really know little, that there is huge scope of the imponderable, the "unexplained" circumstances, unforeseen encounters. We depend on too many aids to go forward. If we balance the uncertainty and confidence our find better ways.
To live is to choose and resign, evaluate and, while recognizing that we can never be sure of the decisions, we do not know what would happen to the other choices we left off.

Only change society by changing the personal, interpersonal, community and social relations. The world will have peace only effective when many individuals and groups living advanced forms of communication, open exchange of information, support.

LEARNING TO CHANGE

The company standardizes on, lowers our expectations in mediocrity, induces us to be content with little, with the externality, with appearances, with the surface of things. In society is more important than seem to be pretending that the show truly.

The society privileges some embodiments, success and identifies with "glamour", power, frequent media appearance, wealth and status. Social models show us well sectored aspirations, with well-defined objectives: the pursuit of financial stability, a stable relationship, to establish and maintain a family, develop a regular economic activity...

And not many people show us that go beyond these models, we believe in more profound changes, expressing peace, fulfillment and constant evolution. These people seek does not appear, make no noise nor desire power.

Society shows us the accommodation on expectations of personal achievement and this interferes deeply in our own expectations.

Why aspire to more? Why not be content with the "normality"? - Tell us directly and indirectly. We lack see, meet people performed as a whole and that experience changes in their way of seeing, feeling and communicating.

Changed little, because we believe that we can not go much beyond where we got so far, because everything pulls us "average" to "normalcy", to the imitation of those who live near us.

Everything conspires against change and promotes accommodation. Change deeper means going against the current, having to justify why we strive more, why chose different paths.

We all have many possibilities that we set aside. We believe that it is not worth going beyond, "Life is like that" normal is it, we already know enough to continue acting.

It is important to learn to break the routines, patterns, to seek new dimensions, challenges perceptions. It is possible and worthwhile to go beyond where we are, believe and be open to everything that surrounds us, antennas alloys with everything that can help us grow. We can always change, always worth a try. The more steps we take towards change, new avenues will

open and it will reset the always new issues and challenges will lead us to new people, activities, attitudes.

Only after some time - sometimes years - as we look back we can see how we change, how many points we already different and that even still experiencing many difficulties, no longer worth going back, we are now different forever .

The profound realization occurs acceptance and change. To believe that we can always go beyond where we are, that we can move forward, find our axis, inner peace; that we are called to fly and not to crawl, to always go beyond and not to give up live ...

LEARNING TO BUILD OUR IDENTITY

Each of us builds his identity with points of support as fundamental and defining their choices. Each has a unique way of seeing the world, to face unexpected situations.

We filter everything from our lenses, experiences, personality, ways of perceiving, feeling and evaluate ourselves and others. Some need to live in a super-organized environment and cannot produce if there is disorder, while others do not give a damn about the mess or make it a habit.

Some need lots of advance to accomplish a task, while others only produce under pressure last moment. In the construction of our identity is important as we see, how we feel, how we situate ourselves in relation to others. Many were educated to depend on the approval of others, do things thinking more about pleasing others than we really want.

We all experience numerous forms of comparison, we stay in the background, sometimes left out, we suffer all kinds of losses and they interfere with our self-image.

Always put the unattainable standards of beauty, wealth, success, affective fulfillment. It is intense social pressure to make us feel unhappy, diminished in some points or so content with little. Many remain immobilized by fear of others' judgment, the fear of failure.

They live out, to be loved, accepted. And without that acceptance they feel bad, hide physically or through forms of communicating little authentic, developing roles for external consumption. Internally - even when apparently deny - we are aware that we are fragile, contradictory, inconsistent, and in some fields, less than others.

The big question is, intimately, many do not actually enjoy, not fully accepted as they are, doubt its value, try to justify their problems, seek forms of compensation, approval. Much of our waywardness, our difficulties, losses and problems stems from the fear of being happy, to believe in our potential. We were marking time for feeling insecure, to incorporate so many negative, accommodating, mediocre injunctions.

This construction of our identity that we were performing so painfully not modify magically. We can, however, learn to go modifying some processes of perception, emotion and action.
It is important to recognize our strengths, value them, highlight them and seek ways to put them

into practice, choosing situations where they are most needed and tested. Be attentive to what happens and go in anticipating, predicting, testing, evaluating.

We are called to do great flights. We can go far beyond where we are and where we imagine and realize where others.

We can modify our perception, learning to accept ourselves and to fully appreciate us, to accept us fully, intimately as we are, without comparisons or devaluations, when nobody sees us, when we have to represent someone and go ahead, at our pace, believing in our potential.

THE FUNDAMENTAL CHANGE OF ATTITUDE

All we want to change. All realize we need to change in some fields. But making changes is often more complicated than we imagine.

Some try to change as if they were dieting to lose weight. They start a diet, then stop, they start again with another and so vain: they do things, but stop at some point. After several attempts, are discouraged, because they cannot reach and mostly keep their purposes.

Others try to be informed; they read everything that relates to the change. They attend lectures, take courses. They know all the theory, but they lack the courage to put it in practice. They want to change, but do not assume a truly effective attitude change.

There are those who do everything except the most important. They pray, they promise, they try one way or another, and are always active. It seems they are getting it. But they are using diversionary tactics. They do everything except what they need to do. They try all except what would really help them. They try to balance in a thousand attempts to move without breaking the old structure. They stretch the rope until nearly burst, but always come back to time when they are about to take a stronger step toward the new.

People are acrobats. With one hand the new approach, they try new shares, while the other cling to the known, the existing situations. Advance and retreat simultaneously. They live moments of joy to realize that advance and extreme frustration to see that coming back to the same place. Carry an unbearable inner tension, because they sense the joy of change without being able to enjoy it.

They are people, for example, that do not support more committed relationships and know someone with which to understand much better that are fully realized, but cannot break with the previous situation. They are divided, and can lead parallel lives for years. Intellectually they have made clear that the new situation is much higher, but remain trapped by invisible webs to the past; they feel fear in taking a new step, to show their failure, risking the long term. That happens a lot when there is a family with children and the partner is also dependent. Children and companion can do everything to arrest the person who wants to change; they unite in a tenacious effort to halt any attempt to change, seek the weaknesses of the other: "I cannot live without you"; "worth again", "the children will suffer" "the new situation can be an illusion, then

everything is equal, so that risk?".

One feels literally suffocated, trapped in a web which cannot get loose. The home life becomes tenser, joyless. The coexistence becomes increasingly formal, superficial. There is no real intimacy or joy of being together. Unconsciously there is a rage with the partner and against himself, by impotence, which becomes continuous pinpricks, ironies, small revenges on automatic routine gestures, tasks, rituals increasingly pointless indifference.

The true attitude change

It is important to see if we really want change. Look calmly, objectively for how we act.

First, we want to renew the desire to change. Then go on changing as we can, at our pace, our way, attentive and at the same time accepting limits, difficulties that arise, not denying. Even when we retreat, we will accept this difficulty, recognize it, relying on the same indecision.
The change cannot mean only suffering but also hope, trust. There is suffering, no doubt. It's like when we need to remove a Band-Aid of our skin The larger the wound, the more carefully withdraw; we damping material and the skin until it pulls away and release. Some prefer to start once the bandage. There are times when it is possible, in other can aggravate the wound, if it is not healed.

We can gently try our changes. Start the periphery, so it is easier for us to. Be mindful of all or perceptions, feelings, and doings. It give us unconditional support, even when go backwards. The emotional support is crucial not to lose heart. And always go resuming our process of change, as we do a slow siege to the walls that defend ourselves. We must find loopholes to introduce ourselves, make small gestures of change, evaluate various strategies of advancement.
With changes little by little, we will be able to change, have the courage to reach broader changes. It is not worth focusing only long term but go conquering small spaces of freedom, achievement, progress possible at this time. And then try to settle them, recognize them, value them, incorporate them as far as we possibly can.

WHO IS SURE?

The uncertainty of the future causes anxiety to all human beings. The uncertainty of tomorrow, the next day. But anyway: who is sure of anything? Be it the simple fear of unemployment or even death itself?

It remains only to surrender everything in the hands of God, wait and contain huge anxiety housed in our being and distress that takes over our mind to the point of making it obsolete, focusing only on the worst.

You need to have confidence in being superior who does only what is right for us, what we deserve, because it just gives us the weight we can carry! Fight and always fight before fail than never to have tried! Whatever our choice there will always be pros and cons. For that wear out with tomorrow when you can enjoy today's day? It is suffering in anticipation!

Who can guarantee something? Everyone is afraid of something: The patient is afraid of dying, the poor become rich, the employee losing his job, the unemployed never get one, Married to end the relationship, singles to be alone, the young get old.

We can all take a lesson from that is the honest truth: who has God has health, wealth, love, security, and is never alone. Tackle everything with faith and will, because everything that happens is only for our good, for our evolution, even if we think otherwise.

RESPECT THE DIFFERENCES!

When we are born we are inserted into a family, they are biological or not. Some are born without father or mother and reared by relatives, by other institutions. Common in all this? The relationship that people have with each other is by kinship, affinity or coexistence. We like these people and want next in compensation do not endure even look at other which we do not sympathize, and yet we have to live with. Such is life and society which we entered, it remains only to fit in and get along with everyone and draw lessons from all this.

How would the world be if every human being to be alone on a deserted island without contact with any human being? There would be no right or wrong, we would be free, we would live in a paradise and would not have to work, pay bills, study, stress does not exist, comparisons, crimes and so many other things. But I wonder: what this man would've learned? Nothing. The grace of the world is to live and get along with all types of people.

When you see a friend or relative experiencing difficulties you soon proposes to help. Want to buy something make an effort and buy often unnecessary things. Because when someone asks for help often unknown you deny? Because you don't you know him? Do not know if he is telling the truth or you do not have to help? Is your relative or friend any different from that person? Unfortunately, the world is so violent and full of malicious people who distrust everything.

Sometimes I step on the street and see someone on the street sleeping on the sidewalk and think, as I have everything I need and that person is there? What a life story does that person have? He may be your distant relative, may have been your childhood friend and for some reason, is that situation either by alcohol or drugs. Because when someone close to us goes through problems we move heaven and earth to help and those we don't know who we simple care less?

It is difficult to understand the world and the human being. Many intend to help others every day while others only think of themselves in how they will make more money and when such event will, plan a trip and pretend that everything is fine. Spend on security, armored cars, security cameras in buildings up with private security guards. We are all afraid of the real world, with violence and forget that it was our indifference with next that caused all this. If people would stop thinking only of themselves, the world would be very different. Now we just pay the price humanity has imposed.

FREEDOM: A MAN'S ACHIEVEMENT

What is freedom? How can man be free? It would be a utopian possibility?

Misunderstood, denied, desired, especially misused freedom has always been a key issue for humanity.

For Sartre the man is his freedom and is condemned to be free. Condemned because he did not create himself and how, is free however, since it was launched in the world is responsible for everything he does.

Only at times when I exercise my freedom is that I am completely myself. So will the authentic, autonomous, self-determining individual.

Be and do imply freedom. The primary condition of the action is freedom. Freedom is essentially the ability to choose. Where there is no choice, no freedom. The man makes choices from morning to night and be responsible for them assuming their risks (wins or losses). Choose clothes, friends, loves, movies, music, professions ... The choice always implies two or more alternatives; with only one option there is no choice and no freedom.

The choices are not always easy and simple. Choose to opt for an alternative and forgo the other or the other.

There is zero or no freedom. For more enslaved you find a person, always left him some power of choice. Also there is infinite freedom, no one can choose everything.

Against common sense "being free" does not mean "get what you wanted", but rather "be determined for himself the willing" (in the sense of choosing). The success does not matter at all to freedom. The technical and philosophical concept of freedom means: freedom of choice, making no distinction between intention and act.

The free act is necessarily an act for which to answer and blame yourself. I am free because I have to accept the consequences of my actions and omissions.

Irrational animals are not free, are not responsible for what they do or do not do. No one can condemn a horse that gave him a kick. The animal does not do what you want but what you need or what is determined by the survival instinct to continue existing.

The man Sartre cannot be free now, now slave. He is totally and always free or not.

Freedom is not something that is given, but the result of a proposed action. It is an arduous task which challenges are not always supported by man, resulting in the risk of loss of freedom for the man who settles not struggling to get it.

EDUCATIONAL THEORIES

We've broken down this section on theories into the following five categories:

- About Learning
- Curriculum: What Should Be Learned?
- Instruction: How Should Learning Be Designed?
- Assessment: How Will We Know If Learning Occurs?
- Organizational Theory: How Should Schools Be Designed?

About Learning

This section examines 12 different theories on how people learn:

- Constructivism
- Behaviorism
- Piaget's Developmental Theory
- Neuroscience
- Brain-Based Learning
- Learning Styles
- Multiple Intelligences
- Right Brain/Left Brain Thinking
- Communities of Practice
- Control Theory
- Observational Learning
- Vygotsky and Social Cognition

Constructivism

Definition

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Each of us generates our own "rules" and "mental models," which we use to make sense of our experiences. Learning, therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences.

Discussion
There are several guiding principles of constructivism:

1. Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with the issues around which students are actively trying to construct meaning.

2. Meaning requires understanding wholes as well as parts. And parts must be understood in the context of wholes. Therefore, the learning process focuses on primary concepts, not isolated facts.
3. In order to teach well, we must understand the mental models that students use to perceive the world and the assumptions they make to support those models.
4. The purpose of learning is for an individual to construct his or her own meaning, not just memorize the "right" answers and regurgitate someone else's meaning. Since education is inherently interdisciplinary, the only valuable way to measure learning is to make the assessment part of the learning process, ensuring it provides students with information on the quality of their learning.

How Constructivism Impacts Learning

Curriculum--Constructivism calls for the elimination of a standardized curriculum. Instead, it promotes using curricula customized to the students' prior knowledge. Also, it emphasizes hands-on problem solving.

Instruction--Under the theory of constructivism, educators focus on making connections between facts and fostering new understanding in students. Instructors tailor their teaching strategies to student responses and encourage students to analyze, interpret, and predict information. Teachers also rely heavily on open-ended questions and promote extensive dialogue among students.

Assessment--Constructivism calls for the elimination of grades and standardized testing. Instead, assessment becomes part of the learning process so that students play a larger role in judging their own progress.

Reading
Jacqueline and Martin Brooks, *The Case for Constructivist Classrooms.*
Behaviorism

Definition

Behaviorism is a theory of animal and human learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviors and discounts mental activities. Behavior theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behavior.

Discussion

Experiments by behaviorists identify conditioning as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yielding a different behavioral pattern:

1. Classic conditioning occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus. The most popular example is Pavlov's observation that dogs salivate when they eat or even see food. Essentially, animals and people are biologically "wired" so that a certain stimulus will produce a specific response.

2. Behavioral or operant conditioning occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system: If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviorist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance and bowl a ball in a mini-alley.

There have been many criticisms of behaviorism, including the following:

1. Behaviorism does not account for all kinds of learning, since it disregards the activities of the mind.
2. Behaviorism does not explain some learning--such as the recognition of new language patterns by young children--for which there is no reinforcement mechanism.
3. Reserach has shown that animals adapt their reinforced patterns to new information. For instance, a rat can shift its behavior to respond to changes in the layout of a maze it had previously mastered through reinforcements.

How Behaviorism Impacts Learning

This theory is relatively simple to understand because it relies only on observable behavior and describes several universal laws of behavior. Its positive and negative reinforcement techniques can be very effective--both in animals, and in treatments for human disorders such as autism and antisocial behavior. Behaviorism often is used by teachers, who reward or punish student behaviors.

Piaget

Definition

Swiss biologist and psychologist Jean Piaget (1896-1980) is renowned for constructing a highly influential model of child development and learning. Piaget's theory is based on the idea that the developing child builds cognitive structures--in other words, mental "maps," schemes, or networked concepts for understanding and responding to physical experiences within his or her environment. Piaget further attested that a child's cognitive structure increases in sophistication with development, moving from a few innate reflexes such as crying and sucking to highly complex mental activities.

Discussion

Piaget's theory identifies four developmental stages and the processes by which children progress through them. The four stages are:

> *1. Sensorimotor stage (birth - 2 years old)*--The child, through physical interaction with his or her environment, builds a set of concepts about reality and how it works. This is the stage where a child does not know that physical objects remain in existence even when out of sight (object permanance).
> *2. Preoperational stage (ages 2-7)*--The child is not yet able to conceptualize abstractly and needs concrete physical situations.
> *3. Concrete operations (ages 7-11)*--As physical experience accumulates, the child starts to conceptualize, creating logical structures that explain his or her physical experiences. Abstract problem solving is also possible at this stage. For example, arithmetic equations can be solved with numbers, not just with objects.
> *4. Formal operations (beginning at ages 11-15)*--By this point, the child's cognitive structures are like those of an adult and include conceptual reasoning.

Piaget outlined several principles for building cognitive structures. During all development stages, the child experiences his or her environment using whatever mental maps he or she has constructed so far. If the experience is a repeated one, it fits easily--or is assimilated--into the child's cognitive structure so that he or she maintains mental "equilibrium." If the experience is different or new, the child loses equilibrium, and alters his or her cognitive structure to accommodate the new conditions. This way, the child erects more and more adequate cognitive structures.

How Piaget's Theory Impacts Learning

Curriculum--Educators must plan a developmentally appropriate curriculum that enhances their students' logical and conceptual growth.

Instruction--Teachers must emphasize the critical role that experiences--or interactions with the surrounding environment--play in student learning. For example, instructors have to take into account the role that fundamental concepts, such as the permanence of objects, play in establishing cognitive structures.

Neuroscience

Definition
Neuroscience is the study of the human nervous system, the brain, and the biological basis of consciousness, perception, memory, and learning.

Discussion
The nervous system and the brain are the physical foundation of the human learning process. Neuroscience links our observations about cognitive behavior with the actual physical processes that support such behavior. This theory is still "young" and is undergoing rapid, controversial development.

Some of the key findings of neuroscience are:

The brain has a triad structure. Our brain actually contains three brains: the lower or reptilian brain that controls basic sensory motor functions; the mammalian or limbic brain that controls emotions, memory, and biorhythms; and the neocortex or thinking brain that controls cognition, reasoning, language, and higher intelligence.

The brain is not a computer. The structure of the brain's neuron connections is loose, flexible, "webbed," overlapping, and redundant. It's impossible for such a system to function like a linear or parallel-processing computer. Instead, the brain is better described as a self-organizing system.

The brain changes with use, throughout our lifetime. Mental concentration and effort alters the physical structure of the brain. Our nerve cells (neurons) are connected by branches called dendrites. There are about 10 billion neurons in the brain and about 1,000 trillion connections. The possible combinations of connections is about ten to the one-millionth power. As we use the brain, we strengthen certain patterns of connection, making each connection easier to create next time. This is how memory develops.

How Neuroscience Impacts Education
When educators take neuroscience into account, they organize a curriculum around real experiences and integrated, "whole" ideas. Plus, they focus on instruction that promotes complex thinking and the "growth" of the brain. Neuroscience proponents advocate continued learning and intellectual development throughout adulthood.

Reading
Gerald Edelman, *Bright Air, Brilliant Fire: On the Matter of the Mind.* Basic Books, 1992.
Bobbi Deporter, *Quantum Learning*, Chapter 2. Dell Trade, 1992.
Renate and Geoffrey Caine, *Making Connections: Teaching and the Human Brain.*

Robert Sylwester, "What the Biology of the Brain Tells Us About Learning," *Education Leadership*, December, 1993.

Brain-based Learning

Definition

This learning theory is based on the structure and function of the brain. As long as the brain is not prohibited from fulfilling its normal processes, learning will occur.

Discussion
People often say that everyone can learn. Yet the reality is that everyone does learn. Every person is born with a brain that functions as an immensely powerful processor. Traditional schooling, however, often inhibits learning by discouraging, ignoring, or punishing the brain's natural learning processes.
The core principles of brain-based learning state that:

1. The brain is a parallel processor, meaning it can perform several activities at once, like tasting and smelling.
2. Learning engages the whole physiology.
3. The search for meaning is innate.
4. The search for meaning comes through patterning.
5. Emotions are critical to patterning.
6. The brain processes wholes and parts simultaneously.
7. Learning involves both focused attention and peripheral perception.
8. Learning involves both conscious and unconscious processes.
9. We have two types of memory: spatial and rote.
10. We understand best when facts are embedded in natural, spatial memory.
11. Learning is enhanced by challenge and inhibited by threat.
12. Each brain is unique.

The three instructional techniques associated with brain-based learning are:

1. Orchestrated immersion--Creating learning environments that fully immerse students in an educational experience
2. Relaxed alertness--Trying to eliminate fear in learners, while maintaining a highly challenging environment

3. Active processing--Allowing the learner to consolidate and internalize information by actively processing it

How Brain-Based Learning Impacts Education

Curriculum--Teachers must design learning around student interests and make learning contextual.

Instruction--Educators let students learn in teams and use peripheral learning. Teachers structure learning around real problems, encouraging students to also learn in settings outside the classroom and the school building.

Assessment--Since all students are learning, their assessment should allow them to understand their own learning styles and preferences. This way, students monitor and enhance their own learning process.

What Brain-Based Learning Suggests

How the brain works has a significant impact on what kinds of learning activities are most effective. Educators need to help students have appropriate experiences and capitalize on those experiences. As Renate Caine illustrates on p. 113 of her book *Making Connections*, three interactive elements are essential to this process:

• Teachers must immerse learners in complex, interactive experiences that are both rich and real. One excellent example is immersing students in a foreign culture to teach them a second language. Educators must take advantage of the brain's ability to parallel process.

• Students must have a personally meaningful challenge. Such challenges stimulate a student's mind to the desired state of alertness.

• In order for a student to gain insight about a problem, there must be intensive analysis of the different ways to approach it, and about learning in general. This is what's known as the "active processing of experience."

A few other tenets of brain-based learning include:

- Feedback is best when it comes from reality, rather than from an authority figure.
- People learn best when solving realistic problems.
- The big picture can't be separated from the details.
- Because every brain is different, educators should allow learners to customize their own environments.
- The best problem solvers are those that laugh!

Designers of educational tools must be artistic in their creation of brain-friendly environments. Instructors need to realize that the best way to learn is not through lecture, but by participation in realistic environments that let learners try new things safely.
Reading

Renate and Geoffrey Caine, *Making Connections: Teaching and the Human Brain.*
Leslie Hart, *Human Brain, Human Learning.*
Learning Styles

Definition
This approach to learning emphasizes the fact that individuals perceive and process information in very different ways. The learning styles theory implies that how much individuals learn has more to do with whether the educational experience is geared toward their particular style of learning than whether or not they are "smart." In fact, educators should not ask, "Is this student smart?" but rather "How is this student smart?"

Discussion
The concept of learning styles is rooted in the classification of psychological types. The learning styles theory is based on research demonstrating that, as the result of heredity, upbringing, and current environmental demands, different individuals have a tendency to both perceive and process information differently. The different ways of doing so are generally classified as:
1. Concrete and abstract perceivers--Concrete perceivers absorb information through direct experience, by doing, acting, sensing, and feeling. Abstract perceivers, however, take in information through analysis, observation, and thinking.

2. Active and reflective processors--Active processors make sense of an experience by immediately using the new information. Reflective processors make sense of an experience by reflecting on and thinking about it.

Traditional schooling tends to favor abstract perceiving and reflective processing. Other kinds of learning aren't rewarded and reflected in curriculum, instruction, and assessment nearly as much.

How the Learning Styles Theory Impacts Education

Curriculum--Educators must place emphasis on intuition, feeling, sensing, and imagination, in addition to the traditional skills of analysis, reason, and sequential problem solving.

Instruction--Teachers should design their instruction methods to connect with all four learning styles, using various combinations of experience, reflection, conceptualization, and experimentation. Instructors can introduce a wide variety of experiential elements into the classroom, such as sound, music, visuals, movement, experience, and even talking.

Assessment--Teachers should employ a variety of assessment techniques, focusing on the development of "whole brain" capacity and each of the different learning styles.

Reading
Bernice McCarthy, *The 4-MAT System: Teaching to Learning Styles with Right/Left Mode Techniques.*
David Kolb, *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development.*
Carl Jung, *Psychological Types.*
Gordon Lawrence, *People Types and Tiger Stripes: A Practical Guide to Learning Styles.*

Multiple Intelligences

Definition
This theory of human intelligence, developed by
psychologist Howard Gardner, suggests there are at least seven ways that people have of perceiving and understanding the world. Gardner labels each of these ways a distinct "intelligence"--in other words, a set of skills allowing individuals to find and resolve genuine problems they face.
Discussion
Gardner defines an "intelligence" as a group of abilities that:
Is somewhat autonomous from other human capacities

Has a core set of information-processing operations
Has a distinct history in the stages of development we each pass through
Has plausible roots in evolutionary history

While Gardner suggests his list of intelligences may not be exhaustive, he identifies the following seven:

1. *Verbal-Linguistic*--The ability to use words andlanguage
2. *Logical-Mathematical*--The capacity for inductive and deductive thinking and reasoning, as well as the use of numbers and the recognition of abstract patterns
3. *Visual-Spatial*--The ability to visualize objects and spatial dimensions, and create internal images and pictures
4. *Body-Kinesthetic*--The wisdom of the body and the ability to control physical motion
5. *Musical-Rhythmic*--The ability to recognize tonal patterns and sounds, as well as a sensitivity to rhythms and beats
6. *Interpersonal*--The capacity for person-to-person communications and relationships
7. *Intrapersonal*--The spiritual, inner states of being, self-reflection, and awarenes

How Multiple Intelligences Impact Learning

Curriculum--Traditional schooling heavily favors the verbal-linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences. Gardner suggests a more balanced curriculum that incorporates the arts, self-awareness, communication, and physical education.

Instruction--Gardner advocates instructional methods that appeal to all the intelligences, including role playing, musical performance, cooperative learning, reflection, visualization, storytelling, and so on.

Assessment--This theory calls for assessment methods that take into account the diversity of intelligences, as well as self-assessment tools that help students understand their intelligences.
Reading
Howard Gardner, *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences.*

Right Brain vs. Left Brain

Definition

This theory of the structure and functions of the mind suggests that the two different sides of the brain control two different "modes" of thinking. It also suggests that each of us prefers one mode over the other.

Discussion

Experimentation has shown that the two different sides, or hemispheres, of the brain are responsible for different manners of thinking. The following table illustrates the differences between left-brain and right-brain thinking:

Left Brain Right BrainLogical
Sequential
Rational
Analytica
ObjectiveLooks at parts Random
Intuitive
Holistic
Synthesizing
Subjective

Looks at wholes Most individuals have a distinct preference for one of these styles of thinking. Some, however, are more whole-brained and equally adept at both modes. In general, schools tend to favor left-brain modes of thinking, while downplaying the right-brain ones. Left-brain scholastic subjects focus on logical thinking, analysis, and accuracy. Right-brained subjects, on the other hand, focus on aesthetics, feeling, and creativity.

How Right-Brain vs. Left-Brain Thinking Impacts Learning

Curriculum--In order to be more "whole-brained" in their orientation, schools need to give equal weight to the arts, creativity, and the skills of imagination and synthesis.
Instruction--To foster a more whole-brained scholastic experience, teachers should use instruction techniques that connect with both sides of the brain. They can increase their classroom's right-brain learning activities by incorporating more patterning, metaphors, analogies, role playing, visuals, and movement into their reading, calculation, and analytical activities.

Assessment--For a more accurate whole-brained evaluation of student learning, educators must develop new forms of assessment that honor right-brained talents and skills.
Reading
Bernice McCarthy, *The 4-MAT System: Teaching to Learning Styles with Right/Left Mode Techniques.*
Communities of Practice

Definition

This approach views learning as an act of membership in a "community of practice." The theory seeks to understand both the structure of communities and how learning occurs in them.

Basic Elements

The communities of practice concept was pioneered by the Institute for Research on Learning, a spin-off of the Xerox Corporation in Palo Alto, CA. The Institute pursues a cross-disciplinary approach to learning research, involving cognitive scientists, organizational anthropologists, and traditional educators. Communities of practice is based on the following assumptions:

Learning is fundamentally a social phenomenon. People organize their learning around the social communities to which they belong. Therefore, schools are only powerful learning environments for students whose social communities coincide with that school.

Knowledge is integrated in the life of communities that share values, beliefs, languages, and ways of doing things. These are called communities of practice. Real knowledge is integrated in the doing, social relations, and expertise of these communities.

The processes of learning and membership in a community of practice are inseparable. Because learning is intertwined with community membership, it is what lets us belong to and adjust our status in the group. As we change our learning, our identity--and our relationship to the group--changes.

Knowledge is inseparable from practice. It is not possible to know without doing. By doing, we learn.

Empowerment--or the ability to contribute to a community--creates the potential for learning. Circumstances in which we engage in real action that has consequences for both us and our community create the most powerful learning environments.

How Communities of Practice Impacts Education

This approach to learning suggests teachers understand their students' communities of practice and acknowledge the learning students do in such communities. The communities of practice theory also suggests educators structure learning opportunities that embed knowledge in both work practices and social relations--for example, apprenticeships, school-based learning, service learning, and so on. Plus, educators should create opportunities for students to solve real problems with adults, in real learning situations.

Reading

Institute for Research on Learning, *A New Learning Agenda: Putting People First* (unpublished pamphlet).

Control Theory
Definition

This theory of motivation proposed by William Glasser contends that behavior is never caused by a response to an outside stimulus. Instead, the control theory states that behavior is inspired by what a person wants most at any given time: survival, love, power, freedom, or any other basic human need.

Discussion
Responding to complaints that today's students are "unmotivated," Glasser attests that all living creatures "control" their behavior to maximize their need satisfaction. According to Glasser, if students are not motivated to do their schoolwork, it's because they view schoolwork as irrelevant to their basic human needs.

Boss teachers use rewards and punishment to coerce students to comply with rules and complete required assignments. Glasser calls this "leaning on your shovel" work. He shows how high percentages of students recognize that the work they do--even when their teachers praise them--is such low-level work.

Lead teachers, on the other hand, avoid coercion completely. Instead, they make the intrinsic rewards of doing the work clear to their students, correlating any proposed assignments to the students' basic needs. Plus, they only use grades as temporary indicators of what has and hasn't been learned, rather than a reward. Lead teachers will "fight to protect" highly engaged, deeply motivated students who are doing quality work from having to fulfill meaningless requirements.

How the Control Theory Impacts Learning

Curriculum--Teachers must negotiate both content and method with students. Students' basic needs literally help shape how and what they are taught.
Instruction--Teachers rely on cooperative, active learning techniques that enhance the power of the learners. Lead teachers make sure that all assignments meet some degree of their students' need satisfaction. This secures student loyalty, which carries the class through whatever relatively meaningless tasks might be necessary to satisfy official requirements.

Assessment--Instructors only give "good grades"--those that certify quality work--to satisfy students' need for power. Courses for which a student doesn't earn a "good grade" are not recorded on that student's transcript. Teachers grade students using an absolute standard, rather than a relative "curve."

Reading
William Glasser, *The Quality School*, Harper & Row, 1990.
Observational Learning

Definition
Observational learning, also called social learning theory, occurs when an observer's behavior changes after viewing the behavior of a model. An observer's behavior can be affected by the positive or negative consequences--called vicarious reinforcement or vicarious punishment-- of a model's behavior.

Discussion

There are several guiding principles behind observational learning, or social learning theory:

1. The observer will imitate the model's behavior if the model possesses characteristics-- things such as talent, intelligence, power, good looks, or popularity--that the observer finds attractive or desirable.

2. The observer will react to the way the model is treated and mimic the model's behavior. When the model's behavior is rewarded, the observer is more likely to reproduce the rewarded behavior. When the model is punished, an example of vicarious punishment, the observer is less likely to reproduce the same behavior.

3. A distinction exists between an observer's "acquiring" a behavior and "performing" a behavior. Through observation, the observer can acquire the behavior without performing it. The observer may then later, in situations where there is an incentive to do so, display the behavior.

4. Learning by observation involves four separate processes:
attention, retention, production and motivation.

Attention: Observers cannot learn unless they pay attention to what's happening around them. This process is influenced by characteristics of the model, such as how much one likes or identifies with the model, and by characteristics of the observer, such as the observer's expectations or level of emotional arousal.

Retention: Observers must not only recognize the observed behavior but also remember it at some later time. This process depends on the observer's ability to code or structure the information in an easily remembered form or to mentally or physically rehearse the model'sactions.

Production: Observers must be physically and/intellectually capable of producing the act. In many cases the observer possesses the necessary responses. But sometimes, reproducing the model's actions may involve skills the observer has not yet acquired. It is one thing to carefully watch a circus juggler, but it is quite another to go home and repeat those acts.

Motivation: In general, observers will perform the act only if they have some motivation or reason to do so. The presence of reinforcement or punishment, either to the model or directly to the observer, becomes most important in this process.

Attention and retention account for acquisition or learning of a model's behavior; *production and motivation* control the performance.

Human development reflects the complex interaction of the person, the person's behavior, and the environment. The relationship between these elements is called *reciprocal determinism*. A person's cognitive abilities, physical characteristics, personality, beliefs, attitudes, and so on influence both his or her behavior and environment. These influences are reciprocal, however. A person's behavior can affect his feelings about himself and his attitudes and beliefs about others.

Likewise, much of what a person knows comes from environmental resources such as television, parents, and books. Environment also affects behavior: what a person observes can powerfully influence what he does. But a person's behavior also contributes to his environment.

How Observational Learning Impacts Learning:
Curriculum-- Students must get a chance to observe and model the behavior that leads to a positive reinforcement.
Instruction-- Educators must encourage collaborative learning, since much of learning happens within important social and environmental contexts.
Assessment--A learned behavior often cannot be performed unless there is the right environment for it. Educators must provide the incentive and the supportive environment for the behavior to

happen. Otherwise, assessment may not be accurate.

Reading
Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Vygotsky and Social Cognition

Definition

The social cognition learning model asserts that culture is the prime determinant of individual development. Humans are the only species to have created culture, and every human child develops in the context of a culture. Therefore, a child's learning development is affected in ways large and small by the culture--including the culture of family environment--in which he or she is enmeshed.

Discussion

1. Culture makes two sorts of contributions to a child's intellectual development. *First*, through culture children acquire much of the content of their thinking, that is, their knowledge. Second, the surrounding culture provides a child with the processes or means of their thinking, what Vygotskians call the tools of intellectual adaptation. In short, according to the social cognition learning model, culture teaches children both what to think and how to think.

2. Cognitive development results from a dialectical process whereby a child learns through problem-solving experiences shared with someone else, usually a parent or teacher but sometimes a sibling or peer.

3. Initially, the person interacting with child assumes most of the responsibility for guiding the problem solving, but gradually this responsibility transfers to the child.

4. Language is a primary form of interaction through which adults transmit to the child the rich body of knowledge that exists in the culture.

5. As learning progresses, the child's own language comes to serve as her primary tool of intellectual adaptation. Eventually, children can use internal language to direct their own behavior.

6. Internalization refers to the process of learning--and thereby internalizing--a rich body of knowledge and tools of thought that first exist outside the child. This happens primarily through

language.

7. A difference exists between what child can do on her own and what the child can do with help. Vygotskians call this difference the zone of proximal development.

8. Since much of what a child learns comes form the culture around her and much of the child's problem solving is mediated through an adult's help, it is wrong to focus on a child in isolation. Such focus does not reveal the processes by which children acquire new skills.
9. Interactions with surrounding culture and social agents, such as parents and more competent peers, contribute significantly to a child's intellectual development.

How Vygotsky Impacts Learning:

Curriculum-- Since children learn much through interaction, curricula should be designed to emphasize interaction between learners and learning tasks.

Instruction-- With appropriate adult help, children can often perform tasks that they are incapable of completing on their own. With this in mind, scaffolding--where the adult continually adjusts the level of his or her help in response to the child's level of performance--is an effective form of teaching. Scaffolding not only produces immediate results, but also instills the skills necessary for independent problem solving in the future.

Assessment-- Assessment methods must take into account the zone of proximal development. What children can do on their own is their level of actual development and what they can do with help is their level of potential development. Two children might have the same level of actual development, but given the appropriate help from an adult, one might be able to solve many more problems than the other. Assessment methods must target both the level of actual development and the level of potential development.

Reading

Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). *Thought and language.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. (Original work published 1934)
Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Terms and Definitions

Academic Language:

The words a student must know to communica teeffectively about physical education content (ie. cues, skills, etc.).

Social Language: Is the language of the playground. Researcher Jim Cummins calls this language Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills or BICS (Cummins, 1981, 1996).
Newcomers use BICS to function socially in hallways, classrooms, school buses, and playgrounds. Cummins's research shows that it takes one to three years for English language learners to reach the social language level of their peers.

ELL (English Language Learner): A student who is the process of acquiring the English language and whose first language is not English.

LEP (Limited English Proficient): Another term for an English Language Learner student.

ELD (English Language Development): Classes designed to assist English Language Learners.

\ (http://orh.sweetwaterschools.org/files/2012/06/EL-SDAIE-Strategies.pdf) Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English): Teaching strategies for teaching academic content to English Language Learners.

SIOP (Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol): An instructional model developed to facilitate high quality instruction for ELLs in content area teaching.

Think Aloud: When students verbalizing their thinking to themselves while performing a skill or strategy.

Think-Pair-Share: When students are allowed time to process a question, verbalize it to a peer, and then volunteer the answer to the class.

SDAIE Strategies (Specially Designed Academic Instruction for English)

Metacognitive Development: Providing students with skills and vocabulary to talk about their learning (Examples: self assessments, note taking and studying techniques, and vocabulary assignments).

Bridging: Building on previous knowledge and establishing a link between the students and the material (Examples: think-pair-share, quick-writes, and anticipatory charts).

Schema-Building: Helping students see the relationships between various concepts (Examples: compare and contrast, jigsaw learning, peer teaching, and projects).

Contextualization: Familiarizes unknown concepts through direct experience (Examples: demonstrations, media, manipulatives, repetition, and local opportunities).

Text Representation: Inviting students to extend their understandings of text and apply them in a new way (Examples: student created drawings, posters, videos, and games).

Modeling: Speaking slowly and clearly, modeling the language you want students to use, and providing samples of student work.

General Strategies

Know who your ELL students are and their proficiency in English. This can be obtained from the ESOL teacher or bilingual teacher, guidance counselor, social worker, or administration. You can also informally identify ELLs by watching for students who wait on others to move first and then copy what they are doing. It is important to note that their proficiency in listening, reading, speaking, and writing will vary within each student.

As with all your students, set high expectations for ELLs.

Embed multicultural education throughout the curriculum, not just a "Heroes and Holidays" approach where other cultures are mentioned on special days.

Assess and utilize the background knowledge of your students.

Learn to pronounce student names correctly to help develop rapport.

Use technology such as class websites, blogs, and videos (many students are not familiar with American activities).

Avoid testing in English exclusively for ELLs who may not be able to demonstrate what they know in English.

Have structured note-taking formats such as graphic organizers for lectures.
Utilize classroom protocols and routines.

Utilize music when possible.

Instructional Strategies
Slow down your speech and use shorter sentences, present tense of words, synonyms, examples, gestures, demonstrations, and avoid expressions or sayings that are only common in the United States.

Use as many mediums as possible to convey information: oral, written, videos, teacher demonstration, student demonstration, etc.

Use think-alouds and think-pair-shares when asking questions, and don't forget to give students enough time to process the question.

Use bilingual handouts and cue lists.

Use metaphors and imagery for cues.

Environmental Strategies

Create print-rich environments using bulletin boards with articles on sports and physical activity, game-play strategies of the day, words of the day, etc.

Use visual displays, portable white boards, and posters when giving instructions.
Word Walls: Alphabetically arranged high-frequency words displayed at an easy access point for students.

Assignments and Activities

Quick writes, word sorts, and journal writing.

Learning stations to reinforce concepts and skills previously taught.

Introduce vocabulary in a fun way such as a Word Search or Cross Word.

Have students create new games.

Use cooperative learning such as jigsaw learning and peer observations.

Use task cards to give students opportunities to take responsibility for their own learning.

Use newspapers, magazines, and web sites in assignments.

Involve librarians in assignments.

Have ELL students work with teachers to create handouts in multiple languages.

What Is the Difference Between Social and Academic Language?

Social English is the language of everyday communication in oral and written forms. Examples include:

- when your students are talking to their friends on the playground or in the school bus
- when you and your students are having an informal face-to-face conversation
- when your students go to the grocery store and read the shopping list

ELLs' social English may start developing within a few months. However, it will likely take a couple of years before ELLs fully develop social English skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Academic English and social English are not two separate languages. Academic English is more demanding and complex than social English. An ELL student with social English proficiency may not necessarily have the academic English proficiency. It is important for you, the teacher, to make this distinction. Academic English is the language necessary for success in school. It is related to a standards-based curriculum, including the content areas of math, science, social studies, and English language arts.

To facilitate academic language development at the kindergarten level, you can focus on oral language development around themes like plants, Mexico, and dinosaurs. You can include art, manipulatives, and dramatic play. In first grade, you can add reading and writing with a focus on thematic units and literacy development through phonics and storybooks. In the second and third grades, you can focus on higher order literacy skills around the thematic curriculum, as well as using novels, anthologies, trade books, and basal readers. You can begin by explicitly teaching academic vocabulary in the content areas. For example:

• In **math** you can teach your students all the terms for subtraction, like "subtract," "take away," and "decreased by."
• In **science,** you can teach the terms to connect the parts of an experiment, like "therefore," "as a result," and "for instance."
• For **social studies**, you can teach the words and also the background knowledge that ELLs will need. For example, when you mention Thanksgiving, an English-speaking student may think of the first European settlers on the east coast during the 17th and 18th centuries. But for an ELL, the word "Thanksgiving" may not mean much by itself.

• In **English language arts,** you can teach ELLs by using basic graphic organizers for word development to visually represent knowledge. ELLs can write a word and then explore its connections and relationships.

Why is it important for ELLs to develop academic English?

ELLs come to school not only to learn how to communicate socially, but to become academically proficient in English. Learning social English is just the tip of the iceberg. Just because they can speak on the playground, talk to peers, and use everyday English does not mean that they are up to speed in academic English. To the contrary, these ELLs are not yet proficient enough to handle the standards-based curriculum. They lack the academic vocabulary needed to develop the content knowledge in English that they will need to succeed in future schooling. By recognizing these two types of proficiencies, you can help expedite your ELLs' academic English.

How can I identify my ELLs' level of English proficiency?

Both social English and academic English are demanding tasks. One is needed to communicate and the other to succeed in academics at school. Learning both types of English well may take at least four years. However, it is important to note that students will learn at different rates, depending on a variety of variables, including students' existing English proficiency, primary language literacy level, and the quality of the instruction they receive.
Since the ELLs in your classroom probably have different levels of language proficiency, your challenges will be unique with each student. An important first step is identifying your students' levels of English language development. Most ELLs are at the beginning or intermediate levels of English proficiency. The following descriptions of the stages of English language development may help you recognize your ELLs' level of English proficiency.

Beginning stage
ELLs at the beginning stage demonstrate comprehension of simplified language, speak a few English words, answer simple questions, and use common social greetings and repetitive phrases. They make regular mistakes.

Intermediate stage
ELLs at the intermediate stage speak using standard grammar and pronunciation, but some rules are still missing. Their level of comprehension is high and they can ask or answer instructional questions. They can actively participate in conversations, retell stories, and use expanded vocabulary and paraphrasing.

Advanced stage

ELLs at the advanced stage use consistent standard English vocabulary, grammar, idioms, and oral/written strategies similar to those of English-speaking peers. They have good pronunciation and intonation. Advanced ELLs initiate social conversations. They use idiomatic expressions and appropriate ways of speaking according to their audience.

What can I do to help my students develop both social and academic English?

You can do both in your classes. Once you have determined your students' levels of proficiency, you can help them develop social and academic English without watering down the curriculum. Here are some ways you can involve ELLs through meaningful social language that stimulates their academic English growth.

Begin with social English

As much as possible, use the ELLs' background knowledge of what they know and bring to school. Include many contextual supports through visuals, maps, charts, manipulatives, music, and pantomiming. You can also use Total Physical Response (TPR) activities to help ELLs learn by doing.

Use social English to teach academic English
As ELLs reach the intermediate level, use social English with contextual support to teach academic English. Add content vocabulary in your lessons or units. Cooperative group projects with more advanced ELLs or English-speakers are also helpful for intermediate ELLs.

Challenge students' thinking

Use Bloom's taxonomy to make sure you are challenging students' thinking. ELLs at different stages of English proficiency can be challenged to think at higher levels, even if their vocabulary and expressive skills are fairly limited.
For example, early intermediate students might be learning about urban and rural life in the United States. Lessons would focus on vocabulary and being able to produce short statements.

Students can be expected to:
• know what they can find in a U.S. city and in the country (knowledge and comprehension)• determine whether someone lives in the country or city based on a description of what they see (application)

- name two or three ways in which cities and rural towns are similar and different (analysis)
- draw typical city and rural scenes (synthesis)

- say whether they would prefer to live in the city or the country and give one or two reasons why (evaluation)

The important point is that advanced English is not required to engage ELLs in advanced thinking as long as you are aware of the language proficiency levels of your ELLs and adjust the language expectations accordingly.

How Students Acquire Social and Academic Language

In this section, we are going to look at the differences between acquiring social and academic language. We will examine how students acquire first and second languages and we will show how the common underlying proficiency (CUP) helps students acquire a second language. Finally, we will discuss how long it takes for students to acquire academic language in various types of programs.

Some of the most pressing and frequent questions administrators, board members, and classroom teachers ask are "How long should it take a newcomer to learn English?" and "What kinds of programs help ELLs acquire English quickly?" In this chapter, we explore the answers to these questions, analyze the essential theories in second-language acquisition, and examine the differences between social and academic English.

As you read the statements below, decide whether you think they are true or false.

- English language learners need one to three years to master social language in the classroom.
- Students don't always acquire social language naturally in informal contexts. They may need to be taught how to communicate appropriately in social situations.
- Although English language learners may speak English on the playground, this does not mean they have mastered the academic and cognitive language of the classroom.
- Learning academic subjects in their native language helps ELLs learn English.
- Parents of English language learners should be encouraged to speak their primary language at home.
- Students who have strong literacy skills in their native language will learn English faster.
- Students need more than two to three years in bilingual or ESL classes to succeed in school.

Social Language and the English Language Learner
True or False?
English language learners need one to three years to master social language in the classroom. TRUE.

Social language is the language of the playground. Researcher Jim Cummins calls this language Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills or BICS (Cummins, 1981, 1996). Newcomers use BICS to function socially in hallways, classrooms, school buses, and playgrounds. Cummins's research shows that it takes one to three years for English language learners to reach the social language level of their peers.

The context of social language is embedded. For example, if a student wants a drink of water, he can ask for it by making a drinking motion and saying the word *water*. Newcomers have support for BICS because they can use gestures, objects, and pictures to help make the information comprehensible.

- English language learners who are in the beginning stages are able to handle the following tasks:
- Produce survival vocabulary such as the words for *water* or *bathroom*.
- Follow simple directions that are accompanied by gestures such as "Point to the door" or "Walk to the chair."
- Engage in one-to-one social conversation using gestures.
- Answer low-level questions such as "Is an elephant large or small?" or "What color is the chair?"
- Participate effectively in hands-on classes such as art and physical education.
- Play uncomplicated games, particularly games that they play well in their native language, such as checkers, chess, or backgammon.
- Produce simple drawings, charts, and graphs.
- Context-Reduced Social Language Activities

As we learned in the previous section, social interactions are usually context embedded. These interactions occur in meaningful social settings and most likely they are not cognitively demanding. As your newcomers' listening and oral language skills start to develop, they will be able to add more challenging activities to their repertoire and the context and social cues for these interactions will be reduced. Some context-reduced social language activities include the following:

- Holding predictable conversations with teachers and peers. For example, the student might tell the teacher during a math lesson, "I don't understand." The teacher can demonstrate the math concept using manipulatives and drawings to help the student comprehend.

- Decoding simple reading passages. ELLs will be able to sound out words, but they may not comprehend what they are reading.

- Copying words and sentences from the board.

- Reading a weekly school schedule or a homework assignment.

- Listening to and understanding a simple story.

- Responding to and writing answers for short informational questions. For example, for a history unit on the Pilgrims, a teacher can test literal comprehension by asking, "What was name of the Pilgrims' ship?

- Executing answers to questions about a chart or map, such as "Find Mexico on the map and label it."
- Understanding and communicating knowledge about math facts. At this stage, however, students will not be ready to learn difficult math concepts.

- Interacting socially with classmates. English language learners should be able to ask for help with their schoolwork or understand a teacher's instructions for a game.

Newcomers will be able to participate in context-reduced activities during their content-area classes as well. These activities include science experiments, content-related craft projects, and language arts assignments involving drawings, bookmarks, book covers, and dioramas.

How Do Students Acquire Social Language?

True or False?

Students don't always acquire social language naturally in informal contexts. They may need to be taught how to communicate appropriately in social situations. TRUE.

Does social language need to be taught and practiced or do students pick it up automatically on the playground or in the lunchroom?

English language learners may need to be specifically taught interpersonal skills such as how to greet people, give and receive compliments, apologize, and make polite requests.

They also need to understand nonverbal language and the use of personal space. The goal of Standard 1 of the 2006 PreK–12 English language proficiency standards is for ELLs to learn to communicate in English for social and instructional purposes during the school day. This goal is important because many ELLs need to learn the appropriate voice tones, volume, and language for different school settings. For example, some ELLs speak to a teacher in the same way that they talk to a peer, such as Min Ki in the next example.

→ Min Ki is a beginning ELL from Korea. Although his English is quite limited, Min Ki is adept at picking up expressions on the playground. During recess one day he learned to say "Yeah, yeah, yeah." Whenever Ms. Chen, his classroom teacher, gave directions, Min Ki would reply, "Yeah, yeah, yeah." The teacher finally had to ask an adult volunteer to explain to him that this is inappropriate language for a child to use with an adult. In this setting, an adult had to teach Min Ki that there is a difference between language used with an adult and language used with friends on the playground.

Another example of improper language in the classroom is swearing. ELLs may pick up inappropriate language on the playground and may not realize why this language is not suitable in the classroom. In the next example, Vadim's teacher tries to convey the seriousness of his inappropriate language.

→ Vadim, a 4th grade student from Russia, used an X-rated expression in the classroom. The teacher was understandably distressed and made Vadim write an apology letter for homework. The teacher became even more upset when Vadim's parents did not take the infraction seriously. What the teacher did not know, however, was that Vadim's parents were not appalled because swearing does not have the same shock value in a person's second language as it does in a person's first language.

Many newcomers in middle school and high school say that they are learning academic language but have few opportunities to practice social language. Most of their social interactions are with students with the same native language background. In the next example, we look at Carmen and Diego and their social language skills.

→ Carmen is an English language learner from the Dominican Republic who attends a suburban middle school. She is a very good student who works hard and has quickly acquired academic English; however, she socializes only with classmates who speak Spanish. Her social language in English is slow and hesitant. She has difficulty initiating a conversation in English. Her Brazilian classmate Diego, on the other hand, is athletic and plays soccer with the boys from his class. Because Diego interacts with many English-speaking teammates, his social English is quite fluent.

Social language comes easier to students who have real reasons to speak with their classmates. Organized school activities such as sports teams, band, or chorus can expose ELLs to social English.

Role playing, teacher modeling, peer modeling, and videos are all good tools for teaching ELLs social skills. Teachers can encourage newcomers to observe their peers as models of correct behavior. Teachers should set expectations for these behaviors by using real incidents that come up in the class such as having students practice saying good morning and good-bye to their teachers and classmates. In the next example, Mrs. Arena teaches her students simple language for social interactions.

→ Mrs. Arena is a kindergarten teacher who stands at her classroom door at the end of the day. She shakes hands and says good-bye to students as they leave. She uses each child's name and intersperses her farewells with comments. A typical exchange might be:
"Good-bye, Juan. Have fun at the park," Mrs. Arena says.
"Good-bye, Mrs. Arena," replies Juan. "See you tomorrow."
Mrs. Arena makes an everyday classroom routine a valuable lesson in social interaction and small talk. As students leave the playground after school, they say good-bye to each other using the same farewells modeled earlier by the teacher.

Evaluating the Silent Period

How does a teacher know when a child is ready to speak? When should an ELL be encouraged to participate in the standard social language of the classroom?

Mi Yeon is a Korean student who has been in the United States for 18 months. Although she is progressing in her academic work, she barely speaks to her teachers. Even when prompted, she will not say good morning or good-bye to them when she enters and leaves the classroom. One

of her teachers, Mrs. Burns-Paterson, has not forced the issue because she knows about the silent period and does not want to traumatize Mi Yeon. Let's take a look at how Mrs. Burns-Paterson helps guide Mi Yeon through the silent period.

→ Mrs. Burns-Paterson decided to set realistic expectations for routine social exchanges in the classroom. She didn't want to single Mi Yeon out, so she gradually added lessons in social language for the whole class. She began by explaining that when they entered the classroom each day, everyone was going to say hello or good morning to the teacher and to the students who sat at their table. She asked several children to act out the greeting. After a week, Mi Yeon successfully participated in this activity.

To further help shy students like Mi Yeon, Ms. Burns-Paterson had her students practice giving compliments. The comments had to be positive and could not be about a classmate's appearance. Students brainstormed a list of compliments they could give each other, such as "I like the way you drew that dinosaur" or "Your handwriting is so neat" or "Your story was interesting. I liked the part where you chased the dog."

We have seen how social language is informally acquired through interactions in classrooms, hallways, cafeterias, and on school buses. Although some social language needs to be modeled and reinforced by the teacher and native English speakers, other social interactions can be picked up by frequent interactions.

Understanding How Students Acquire Academic Language

True or False?

Although English language learners may speak English on the playground, this does not mean they have mastered the academic and cognitive language of the classroom. TRUE.

Teachers and administrators may decide to move students who have social communication skills out of language support services because they sound like native English speakers. ELLs who speak English well in social situations, however, are not necessarily prepared for academic tasks in the classroom. It is crucial for educators to understand the difference between BICS and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP).

CALP includes language for formal academic learning and for written texts in content areas such as English literature, math, science, and social studies. CALP skills also encompass reading, writing, and thinking about subject-area content material. Students also use CALP skills to compare, classify, synthesize, evaluate, and infer.

Consider this conversation between Mrs. Perez, an 8th grade history teacher, and Carlota, a student from Mexico.

→ Mrs. Perez: Why didn't you do your homework, Carlota? You're going to fail this class.

→ Carlota: I go visit my aunt. She sick. She got something bad with her heart. My uncle drive my mother and me. We bring aunt some food. When I get home, it's too late finish homework.

Carlota's social language is good. She is able to clearly tell Mrs. Perez what happened. Although Carlota makes some errors, they do not impede communication. In contrast, however, Carlota is not doing well in history and her other academic subjects. She has acquired social language, but she still needs help with her academic vocabulary.

Cognitive academic language skills are both abstract and context reduced. Information can be read from a textbook or presented by the teacher with few verbal cues to help students grasp its meaning. Some ELLs struggle to comprehend what they read and have difficulty expressing what they know in writing.

Many students can say all the words in a reading passage and memorize the definitions of vocabulary words but still not comprehend the text. CALP is more than understanding vocabulary and learning academic facts for a test; it also requires students to sharpen their cognitive abilities and learn new concepts.

As students progress in school, teachers are more likely to present material in a lecture format. The content also becomes more cognitively demanding and the vocabulary becomes more specific to each subject area. New ideas and concepts are presented to the students at the same time as the context-reduced language. Textbooks may be written beyond the language level of an English language learner. ELLs may also have limited background knowledge for subjects such as U.S. history. An instructor's teaching style can also affect how English language learners develop CALP skills. Let's compare Carlota's science teacher, Mr. Angelo, with her history teacher, Mrs. Perez.

→ Mrs. Perez gives reading assignments in a textbook that is written above Carlota's English language ability. She presents material by lecturing in front of the classroom. Her tests are not modified for the English language learners in the classroom and she provides very little support for ELLs. On the other hand, Mr. Angelo, Carlota's science teacher, uses simple language to introduce new concepts to his students. He outlines the most important information on the chalkboard. ELLs are given the important vocabulary for the lesson with simple definitions.

Students are engaged in group work with partners. To help students prepare for tests, Mr. Angelo gives students a study guide. Needless to say, Carlota's progress in science far exceeds her progress in history.

Connecting Languages

True or False?

Learning academic subjects in their native language helps ELLs learn English. TRUE.

Another concept that is generally accepted in the field of second-language acquisition is Cummins's Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) theory. This model shows the relationship between native language and second language. Cummins says, "Concepts are most readily developed in the first language and, once developed, are accessible through the second language. In other words, what we learn in one language transfers into the new language" (Freeman & Freeman, 1994, p. 176).

This model, often referred to as the "Iceberg Model," is shown in Figure 2.1 (Cummins, 2000). The model shows two peaks above the waterline. One peak represents a student's social language in the primary language and the other peak represents a student's social language in English. Beneath the waterline is one solid iceberg. One side shows a student's academic language proficiency in the primary language and the other side shows academic language proficiency in English. In the middle you can see where academic proficiency in English and the primary language intersect. The overlapping area is called Common
Underlying Proficiency (CUP).

Figure 2.1 The Iceberg Model

Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire

Using a Primary Language at Home

True or False?

Parents of English language learners should be encouraged to speak their primary language at home. TRUE.

School administrators and classroom teachers should encourage parents to speak their native language at home. It is much more beneficial for children to hear fluent native language with a rich vocabulary than it is to hear imperfect, halting English. We learned from the Iceberg Model that academic concepts learned in students' primary language will help them acquire English. In the next example, Isobel and her family try to integrate English into their home life.

→ Isobel's family is from Costa Rica. Her parents speak some English and are literate in Spanish. When Isabel's teacher told them that they should speak English at home, her parents became distressed. They tried to speak English with her at the dinner table, but their conversations were stilted. Isobel's parents no longer felt comfortable asking her about her school, classes, and homework in Spanish. They stopped discussing books and the television news with her.

Although the family reverted to their native language at the dinner table after a week of hesitant English, Isobel felt ashamed of her native language. She wished her parents spoke English.

What Isobel's teacher and parents did not know was that by reading and discussing stories with her and by encouraging Isobel to share her school experiences in Spanish, they were giving her experiences in their native language. Informal conversations like these are critical for Isobel because they will help her establish values and discuss ideas that she is not ready to learn in English. Eventually, what she learns in Spanish will help promote her English proficiency. The concepts and skills that students learn in one language will transfer to the second language when the learner is ready.

Students who are literate in their native language have many skills to draw on when they learn academic English, even when the writing system is different. It is more difficult to teach a concept if it does not exist in the student's native language. Once students grasp the underlying literacy skills of one language, they can use these same skills to learn another language. For example, 10th graders who are literate in Spanish will understand the underlying process of reading in English. Older students will be able to transfer skills such as scanning, selecting important information, predicting what comes next, and visualizing to enhance comprehension. Younger children who are literate in one language will know that printed words carry meaning, that words can be combined into sentences and paragraphs, and that certain letters stand for certain sounds. Regardless of students' age, a new concept will be difficult to teach if it doesn't exist in the students' native language. Let's take a look at Xiang and her progress in her English class.

→ Xiang is a 6th grade student from China who has been in the United States for three years. Her teacher, Mrs. Rahmin, worries that Xiang does not use articles, plurals, or pronouns. Her verb tenses are usually incorrect. She consistently leaves the *s* off plural words. Xiang's parents report that she is literate in Mandarin, a Chinese language.

Mrs. Rahmin does not understand that Chinese languages do not have morphological changes to show case, number, and tense. For example, there is no subject-verb agreement and there are no markings at the end of words to denote plurals. There are also no Chinese words that translate into *a, an,* or *the*. Because of these differences, it is very difficult for Xiang to master the grammatical features of English that do not exist in Chinese.

How Long Does It Take Students to Learn English?

True or False?
Students who have strong literacy skills in their native language will learn English faster. TRUE.

Classroom teachers, administrators, and school board members frequently ask, "How long does it take a student to learn English?" and "How long should students receive language support?" Let's look at the research.
The most comprehensive research available on English language learners was conducted by Thomas and Collier (1997). They studied the language acquisition of 700,000 English language learners in a longitudinal study from 1982 to 1996. They wanted to find out how long it would take for students with no background in English to reach the performance of a native speaker on norm-referenced tests (50th percentile). In addition, they looked at variables such as socioeconomic status, students' first language, programs used to learn English, and the amount of formal schooling in students' primary language.

Thomas and Collier found that the most significant variable in how long it takes for a student to learn English is *the amount of formal schooling students receive in their first language.*

In one part of the study, Thomas and Collier researched a group of Asian and Hispanic students from an affluent suburban school district. These students received one to three hours of second-language support per day in a well-regarded ESL program. These students generally exited the

ESL program in the first two years. All students were at or above grade level in native language literacy.

For this group, Thomas and Collier found these results:

• Students ages 8 to 11 years old with two to three years of native language education took five to seven years to test at grade level in English.

• Students with little or no formal schooling who arrived in the United States before the age of 8 took 7 to 10 years to reach grade-level norms in English language literacy.

• Students who were below grade level in their native language also took 7 to 10 years to reach the 50th percentile. Many of these students never reached grade-level norms.

These data held true regardless of the home language, country of origin, or socioeconomic status.

Which Program Works?
True or False?

Students need more than two or three years in bilingual or ESL classes to succeed in school. TRUE.

Many ESL educators believe that English language learners who receive a specific ESL service acquire English faster than students in other types of programs. However, research does not support this belief. Thomas and Collier found that English language learners who received all of their schooling in English performed extremely well in kindergarten through 3rd grade, regardless of the type of bilingual or ESL program. These students made dramatic gains in English. However, when they reached the 4th grade and moved through middle school and high school, the performance of students who had been in all-English programs, such as ESL pullouts, fell substantially.

Why did this happen? Native English speakers make an average language gain of 10 months each school year. However, English language learners who had not become literate in their native language, regardless of what that native language was, only made a six- to eight-month gain per

school year. As a result, the gap between native English speakers and English language learners in all-English programs widened from the 4th grade through high school (Thomas & Collier, 1997).
Students in two-way bilingual immersion and developmental bilingual programs, however, reach the 50th percentile in both their native language and English by 4th or 5th grade in all subject areas. These students are able to sustain these gains in English, and in some cases they achieve even higher success than native English speakers as they move through their secondary school years.

Bilingual programs are not always more effective than ESL or sheltered content programs. Schools should look beyond a program's label and consider the following:

- Are the assigned teachers qualified to teach English language learners?
- Are there sufficient materials for the program?
- What instructional methods are used?
- Are students exited into all-English programs too quickly?

Cummins says, "Quick-exit transitional bilingual education is an inferior model based on an inadequate theoretical assumption; this model aspires to monolingualism and does little to address the causes of bilingual students' underachievement" (Freeman & Freeman, 1998).

What does this research mean for school administrators and supervisors? Bilingual programs are not always feasible, especially in school districts where students come from multiple language backgrounds. Your district can build a better program by taking these key steps:

- Give students more time to develop English language academic skills. Don't rush younger students through language support programs.

- Provide more support services to underschooled upper elementary and middle school students. Remember that it will take them 7 to 10 years to reach grade-level norms.

- Encourage parents to maintain their native language at home. Promote after-school and Saturday instruction in a first language. If your school district has enough students, push for a developmental bilingual or two-way immersion program.

- Provide a sheltered English program. A sheltered English program uses simplified English to

present subject-specific material to English language learners.

Let's review the major points:

- English language learners need one to three years to master social language skills (BICS) for everyday interactions

- Students may need to be taught how to communicate appropriately in social situations.

- Newcomers who speak English on the playground are not necessarily fluent in the academic and cognitive language of the classroom.

- Learning academic subjects in their native language helps ELLs learn English.
- Parents of English language learners should be encouraged to speak their native language at home.

- Students who have strong literacy skills in their native language will learn English faster.

- ELLs receiving pullout ESL services do not necessarily make more progress in English than students in dual-language or developmental bilingual programs.

- Students need more than two to three years in bilingual or ESL classes to succeed in school.

Why Standardized Tests Don't Measure Educational Quality

Educators are experiencing almost relentless pressure to show their effectiveness. Unfortunately, the chief indicator by which most communities judge a school staff's success is student performance on standardized achievement tests.

These days, if a school's standardized test scores are high, people think the school's staff is effective. If a school's standardized test scores are low, they see the school's staff as ineffective. In either case, because educational quality is being measured by the wrong yardstick, those evaluations are apt to be in error.

One of the chief reasons that students' standardized test scores continue to be the most important factor in evaluating a school is deceptively simple. Most educators do not really understand why a standardized test provides a misleading estimate of a school staff's effectiveness. They should.

What's in a Name?

A standardized test is any examination that's administered and scored in a predetermined, standard manner. There are two major kinds of standardized tests: aptitude tests and achievement tests.

Standardized *aptitude* tests predict how well students are likely to perform in some subsequent educational setting. The most common examples are the SAT-I and the ACT both of which attempt to forecast how well high school students will perform in college.

But standardized *achievement*-test scores are what citizens and school board members rely on when they evaluate a school's effectiveness. Nationally, five such tests are in use: California Achievement Tests, Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills, Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, Metropolitan Achievement Tests, and Stanford Achievement Tests.

A Standardized Test's Assessment Mission

The folks who create standardized achievement tests are terrifically talented. What they are trying to do is to create assessment tools that permit someone to make a valid inference about the knowledge and/or skills that a given student possesses in a particular content area. More precisely, that inference is to be norm-referenced so that a student's relative knowledge and/or

skills can be compared with those possessed by a national sample of students of the same age or grade level.

Such relative inferences about a student's status with respect to the mastery of knowledge and/or skills in a particular subject area can be quite informative to parents and educators. For example, think about the parents who discover that their 4th grade child is performing really well in language arts (94th percentile) and mathematics (89th percentile), but rather poorly in science (39th percentile) and social studies (26th percentile). Such information, because it illuminates a child's strengths and weaknesses, can be helpful not only in dealing with their child's teacher, but also in determining at-home assistance. Similarly, if teachers know how their students compare with other students nationwide, they can use this information to devise appropriate classroom instruction.

But there's an enormous amount of knowledge and/or skills that children at any grade level are likely to know. The substantial size of the content domain that a standardized achievement test is supposed to represent poses genuine difficulties for the developers of such tests. If a test actually covered all the knowledge and skills in the domain, it would be far too long.

So standardized achievement tests often need to accomplish their measurement mission with a much smaller collection of test items than might otherwise be employed if testing time were not an issue. The way out of this assessment bind is for standardized achievement tests to sample the knowledge and/or skills in the content domain. Frequently, such tests try to do their assessment job with only 40 to 50 items in a subject field—sometimes fewer.

Accurate Differentiation As a Deity

The task for those developing standardized achievement tests is to create an assessment instrument that, with a handful of items, yields valid norm-referenced interpretations of a student's status regarding a substantial chunk of content. Items that do the best job of discriminating among students are those answered correctly by roughly half the students. Developers avoid items that are answered correctly by too many or by too few students.

As a consequence of carefully sampling content and concentrating on items that discriminate optimally among students, these test creators have produced assessment tools that do a great job of providing relative comparisons of a student's content mastery with that of students nationwide. Assuming that the national norm group is genuinely representative of the nation at large, then educators and parents can make useful inferences about students.

One of the most useful of those inferences typically deals with students' relative strengths and weaknesses across subject areas, such as when parents find that their daughter sparkles in mathematics but sinks in science. It's also possible to identify students' relative strengths and weaknesses within a given subject area if there are enough test items to do so. For instance, if a 45-item standardized test in mathematics allocates 15 items to basic computation, 15 items to geometry, and 15 items to algebra, it might be possible to get a rough idea of a student's relative strengths and weaknesses in those three realms of mathematics. More often than not, however, these tests contain too few items to allow meaningful within-subject comparisons of students' strengths and weaknesses.

A second kind of useful inference that can be based on standardized achievement tests involves a student's growth over time in different subject areas. For example, let's say that a child is given a standardized achievement test every third year. We see that the child's percentile performances in most subjects are relatively similar at each testing, but that the child's percentiles in mathematics appear to drop dramatically at each subsequent testing. That's useful information.

Unfortunately, both parents and educators often ascribe far too much precision and accuracy to students' scores on standardized achievement tests. Several factors might cause scores to flop about. Merely because these test scores are reported in numbers (sometimes even with decimals!) should not incline anyone to attribute unwarranted precision to them. Standardized achievement test scores should be regarded as rough approximations of a student's status with respect to the content domain represented by the test.

To sum up, standardized achievement tests do a wonderful job of supplying the evidence needed to make norm-referenced interpretations of students' knowledge and/or skills in relationship to those of students nationally. The educational usefulness of those interpretations is considerable. Given the size of the content domains to be represented and the limited number of items that the test developers have at their disposal, standardized achievement tests are really quite remarkable. They do what they are supposed to do.

But standardized achievement tests should not be used to evaluate the quality of education. That's not what they are supposed to do.

Measuring Temperature with a Tablespoon

For several important reasons, standardized achievement tests should not be used to judge the quality of education. The overarching reason that students' scores on these tests do not provide an accurate index of educational effectiveness is that any inference about educational quality made on the basis of students' standardized achievement test performances is apt to be invalid.

Employing standardized achievement tests to ascertain educational quality is like measuring temperature with a tablespoon. Tablespoons have a different measurement mission than indicating how hot or cold something is. Standardized achievement tests have a different measurement mission than indicating how good or bad a school is. Standardized achievement tests should be used to make the comparative interpretations that they were intended to provide. They should not be used to judge educational quality. Let's look at three significant reasons that it is thoroughly invalid to base inferences about the caliber of education on standardized achievement test scores.

Testing-Teaching Mismatches

The companies that create and sell standardized achievement tests are all owned by large corporations. Like all for-profit businesses, these corporations attempt to produce revenue for their shareholders.

Recognizing the substantial pressure to sell standardized achievement tests, those who market such tests encounter a difficult dilemma that arises from the considerable curricular diversity in the United States. Because different states often choose somewhat different educational objectives (or, to be fashionable, different content standards), the need exists to build standardized achievement tests that are properly aligned with educators' meaningfully different curricular preferences. The problem becomes even more exacerbated in states where different counties or school districts can exercise more localized curricular decision making.

At a very general level, the goals that educators pursue in different settings are reasonably similar. For instance, you can be sure that all schools will give attention to language arts, mathematics, and so on. But that's at a general level. At the level where it really makes a difference to instruction—in the classroom—there are significant differences in the educational objectives being sought. And that presents a problem to those who must sell standardized achievement tests.

In view of the nation's substantial curricular diversity, test developers are obliged to create a series of one-size-fits-all assessments. But, as most of us know from attempting to wear one-size-fits-all garments, sometimes one size really can't fit all.

The designers of these tests do the best job they can in selecting test items that are likely to measure all of a content area's knowledge and skills that the nation's educators regard as important. But the test developers can't really pull it off. Thus, standardized achievement tests will always contain many items that are not aligned with what's emphasized instructionally in a particular setting.

To illustrate the seriousness of the mismatch that can occur between what's taught locally and what's tested through standardized achievement tests, educators ought to know about an important study at Michigan State University reported in 1983 by Freeman and his colleagues. These researchers selected five nationally standardized achievement tests in mathematics and studied their content for grades 4–6. Then, operating on the very reasonable assumption that what goes on instructionally in classrooms is often influenced by what's contained in the textbooks that children use, they also studied four widely used textbooks for grades 4-6.

Employing rigorous review procedures, the researchers identified the items in the standardized achievement test that had not received meaningful instructional attention in the textbooks. They concluded that between 50 and 80 percent of what was measured on the tests was not suitably addressed in the textbooks. As the Michigan State researchers put it, "The proportion of topics presented on a standardized test that received more than cursory treatment in each textbook was never higher than 50 percent" (p. 509).

Well, if the content of standardized tests is not satisfactorily addressed in widely used textbooks, isn't it likely that in a particular educational setting, topics will be covered on the test that aren't addressed instructionally in that setting? Unfortunately, because most educators are not genuinely familiar with the ingredients of standardized achievement tests, they often assume that if a standardized achievement test asserts that it is assessing "children's reading comprehension capabilities," then it's likely that the test meshes with the way reading is being taught locally. More often than not, the assumed match between what's tested and what's taught is not warranted.

If you spend much time with the descriptive materials presented in the manuals accompanying standardized achievement tests, you'll find that the descriptors for what's tested are often fairly general. Those descriptors need to be general to make the tests acceptable to a nation of educators whose curricular preferences vary. But such general descriptions of what's tested often permit assumptions of teaching-testing alignments that are way off the mark. And such

mismatches, recognized or not, will often lead to spurious conclusions about the effectiveness of education in a given setting if students' scores on standardized achievement tests are used as the indicator of educational effectiveness. And that's the first reason that standardized achievement tests should not be used to determine the effectiveness of a state, a district, a school, or a teacher. There's almost certain to be a significant mismatch between what's taught and what's tested.

A Psychometric Tendency to Eliminate Important Test Items

A second reason that standardized achievement tests should not be used to evaluate educational quality arises directly from the requirement that these tests permit meaningful comparisons among students from only a small collection of items.

A test item that does the best job in spreading out students' total-test scores is a test item that's answered correctly by about half the students. Items that are answered correctly by 40 to 60 percent of the students do a solid job in spreading out the total scores of test-takers.

Items that are answered correctly by very large numbers of students, in contrast, do not make a suitable contribution to spreading out students' test scores. A test item answered correctly by 90 percent of the test-takers is, from the perspective of a test's efficiency in providing comparative interpretations, being answered correctly by too many students.

Test items answered correctly by 80 percent or more of the test takers, therefore, usually don't make it past the final cut when a standardized achievement test is first developed, and such items will most likely be jettisoned when the test is revised. As a result, the vast majority of the items on standardized achievement tests are "middle difficulty" items.

As a consequence of the quest for score variance in a standardized achievement test, items on which students perform well are often excluded. However, items on which students perform well often cover the content that, because of its importance, teachers stress. Thus, the better the job that teachers do in teaching important knowledge and/or skills, the less likely it is that there will be items on a standardized achievement test measuring such knowledge and/or skills. To evaluate teachers' instructional effectiveness by using assessment tools that deliberately avoid important content is fundamentally foolish.

Confounded Causation

The third reason that students' performances on these tests should not be used to evaluate educational quality is the most compelling. Because student performances on standardized

achievement tests are heavily influenced by three causative factors, only one of which is linked to instructional quality, asserting that low or high test scores are caused by the quality of instruction is illogical.

To understand this confounded-causation problem clearly, let's look at the kinds of test items that appear on standardized achievement tests. Remember, students' test scores are based on how well students do on the test's items. To get a really solid idea of what's in standardized tests, you need to grub around with the items themselves.

The three illustrative items presented here are mildly massaged versions of actual test items in current standardized achievement tests. I've modified the items' content slightly, without altering the essence of what the items are trying to measure.

The problem of confounded causation involves three factors that contribute to students' scores on standardized achievement tests: (1) what's taught in school, (2) a student's native intellectual ability, and (3) a student's out-of-school learning.

What's taught in school. Some of the items in standardized achievement tests measure the knowledge or skills that students learn in school. In certain subject areas, such as mathematics, children learn in school most of what they know about a subject. Few parents spend much time teaching their children about the intricacies of algebra or how to prove a theorem.

So, if you look over the items in any standardized achievement test, you'll find a fair number similar to the mathematics item presented in Figure 1, which is a mildly modified version of an item appearing in a standardized achievement test intended for 3rd grade children.

Figure 1. A 3rd Grade Standardized Achievement Test Item in Mathematics

Sally had 14 pears. Then she gave away 6. Which of the number sentences below can you use to find out how many pears Sally has left?

A. 14 + 6 = ___
B. 6 + 14 = ___
C. ___ - 6 = 14
D. 14 - 6 = ___

This mathematics item would help teachers arrive at a valid inference about 3rd graders' abilities to choose number sentences that coincide with verbal representations of subtraction problems.

Or, along with other similar items dealing with addition, multiplication, and division, this item would contribute to a valid inference about a student's ability to choose appropriate number sentences for a variety of basic computation problems presented in verbal form.

If the items in standardized achievement tests measured only what actually had been taught in school, I wouldn't be so negative about using these tests to determine educational quality. As you'll soon see, however, other kinds of items are hiding in standardized achievement tests.

A student's native intellectual ability. I wish I believed that all children were born with identical intellectual abilities, but I don't. Some kids were luckier at gene-pool time. Some children, from birth, will find it easier to mess around with mathematics than will others. Some kids, from birth, will have an easier time with verbal matters than will others. If children came into the world having inherited identical intellectual abilities, teachers' pedagogical problems would be far more simple.

Recent thinking among many leading educators suggests that there are various forms of intelligence, not just one (Gardner, 1994). A child who is born with less aptitude for dealing with quantitative or verbal tasks, therefore, might possess greater "interpersonal" or "intrapersonal" intelligence, but these latter abilities are not tested by these tests. For the kinds of items that are most commonly found on standardized achievement tests, children differ in their innate abilities to respond correctly. And some items on standardized achievement tests are aimed directly at measuring such intellectual ability.

Consider, for example, the item in Figure 2. This item attempts to measure a child's ability "to figure out" what the right answer is. I don't think that the item measures what's taught in school. The item measures what students come to school with, not what they learn there.

Figure 2. A 6th Grade Standardized Achievement Test Item in Social Studies

If someone really wants to conserve resources, one good way to do so is to:

A. leave lights on even if they are not needed.
B. wash small loads instead of large loads in a clothes-washing machine.
C. write on both sides of a piece of paper.
D. place used newspapers in the garbage.

In Figure 2's social studies item for 6th graders, look carefully at the four answer options. Read each option and see if it might be correct. A "smart" student, I contend, can figure out that choices A, B, and D really would not "conserve resources" all that well; hence choice C is the winning option. Brighter kids will have a better time with this item than their less bright classmates.

But why, you might be thinking, do developers of standardized tests include such items on their tests? The answer is all too simple. These sorts of items, because they tap innate intellectual skills that are not readily modifiable in school, do a wonderful job in spreading out test-takers' scores. The quest for score variance, coupled with the limitation of having few items to use in assessing students, makes such items appealing to those who construct standardized achievement tests.

But items that primarily measure differences in students' in-born intellectual abilities obviously do not contribute to valid inferences about "how well children have been taught." Would we like all children to do well on such "native-smarts" items? Of course we would. But to use such items to arrive at a judgment about educational effectiveness is simply unsound.

Out-of-school learning. The most troubling items on standardized achievement tests assess what students have learned outside of school. Unfortunately, you'll find more of these items on standardized achievement tests than you'd suspect. If children come from advantaged families and stimulus-rich environments, then they are more apt to succeed on items in standardized achievement test items than will other children whose environments don't mesh as well with what the tests measure. The item in Figure 3 makes clear what's actually being assessed by a number of items on standardized achievement tests.

Figure 3. A 6th Grade Standardized Achievement Test Item in Science

A plant's fruit always contains seeds. Which of the items below is not a fruit?

A. orange
B. pumpkin
C. apple
D. celery

This 6th grade science item first tells students what an attribute of a fruit is (namely, that it contains seeds). Then the student must identify what "is not a fruit" by selecting the option without seeds. As any child who has encountered celery knows, celery is a seed-free plant. The

right answer, then, for those who have coped with celery's strings but never its seeds, is clearly choice D.

But what if when you were a youngster, your folks didn't have the money to buy celery at the store? What if your circumstances simply did not give you the chance to have meaningful interactions with celery stalks by the time you hit the 6th grade? How well do you think you'd do in correctly answering the item in Figure 3? And how well would you do if you didn't know that pumpkins were seed-carrying spheres? Clearly, if children know about pumpkins and celery, they'll do better on this item than will those children who know only about apples and oranges.

That's how children's socioeconomic status gets mixed up with children's performances on standardized achievement tests. The higher your family's socioeconomic status is, the more likely you are to do well on a number of the test items you'll encounter in a such a test.

Suppose you're a principal of a school in which most students come from genuinely low socioeconomic situations. How are your students likely to perform on standardized achievement tests if a substantial number of the test's items really measure the stimulus-richness of your students' backgrounds? That's right, your students are not likely to earn very high scores. Does that mean your school's teachers are doing a poor instructional job? Of course not.

Conversely, let's imagine you're a principal in an affluent school whose students tend to have upper-class, well-educated parents. Each spring, your students' scores on standardized achievement tests are dazzlingly high. Does this mean your school's teachers are doing a super instructional job? Of course not.

One of the chief reasons that children's socioeconomic status is so highly correlated with standardized test scores is that many items on standardized achievement tests really focus on assessing knowledge and/or skills learned outside of school—knowledge and/or skills more likely to be learned in some socioeconomic settings than in others.

Again, you might ask why on earth would standardized achievement test developers place such items on their tests? As usual, the answer is consistent with the dominant measurement mission of those tests, namely, to spread out students' test scores so that accurate and fine-grained norm-referenced interpretations can be made. Because there is substantial variation in children's socioeconomic situations, items that reflect such variations are efficient in producing among-student variations in test scores.

You've just considered three important factors that can influence students' scores on standardized achievement tests. One of these factors was directly linked to educational quality. But two factors weren't.

What Can An Educator Do?

Learning about standardized achievement tests. Far too many educators haven't really studied the items on standardized achievement tests since the time that they were, as students, obliged to respond to those items. But the inferences made on the basis of students' test performances rest on nothing more than an aggregated sum of students' item-by-item responses. What educators need to do is to spend some quality time with standardized achievement tests—scrutinizing the test's items one at a time to see what they are really measuring.

Spreading the word. Most educators, and almost all parents and school board members, think that schools should be rated on the basis of their students' scores on standardized achievement tests. Those people need to be educated. It is the responsibility of all educators to do that educating.

If you do try to explain to the public, to parents, or to policymakers why standardized test scores will probably provide a misleading picture of educational quality, be sure to indicate that you're not running away from the need to be held accountable. No, you must be willing to identify other, more credible evidence of student achievement.

Coming up with other evidence. If you're going to argue against standardized achievement tests as a source of educational evidence for determining school quality, and you still are willing to be held educationally accountable, then you'll need to ante up some other form of evidence to show the world that you really are doing a good educational job.

The recommendation is that you attempt to assess students' mastery of genuinely significant cognitive skills, such as their ability to write effective compositions, their ability to use lessons from history to make convincing analysis of current problems, and their ability to solve high-level mathematical problems.

If the skills selected measure really important cognitive outcomes, are seen by parents and policymakers to be genuinely significant, and can be addressed instructionally by competent

teachers, then the assembly of a set of pre-test-to-post-test evidence showing substantial student growth in such skills can be truly persuasive.

What teachers need are assessment instruments that measure worthwhile skills or significant bodies of knowledge. Then teachers need to show the world that they can instruct children so that those children make striking pre-instruction to post-instruction progress.

The fundamental point is this: If educators accept the position that standardized achievement test scores should not be used to measure the quality of schooling, then they must provide other, credible evidence that can be used to ascertain the quality of schooling. Carefully collected, nonpartisan evidence regarding teachers' pre-test-to-post-test promotion of undeniably important skills or knowledge just might do the trick.

Right Task, Wrong Tools

Educators should definitely be held accountable. The teaching of a nation's children is too important to be left unmonitored. But to evaluate educational quality by using the wrong assessment instruments is a subversion of good sense. Although educators need to produce valid evidence regarding their effectiveness, standardized achievement tests are the wrong tools for the task.

Classifying Problems

Solving problems require good critical and creative thinking. We need to be able to define the problem, analyze the nature of the problem, and come up with effective solutions. The ability to solve problems is a very important skill in the workplace.

Defining the problem

When we are faced with a difficult problem, how should we go about solving it in an efficient and effective manner? An important starting point is knowing what the problem is. In school students are usually solving problems that are already well-formulated. Most problem sets and exam questions are like that. However, in everyday life and in the workplace, most of the time we have to identify the problem and formulate it correctly. In defining a problem there are these points to consider:

- The formulation of a problem can indirectly influence us in the directions that we take in seeking solutions. So sometimes it might be useful to come up with alternative formulations of the problem, and consider how to best formulate a problem. For example, faced with an unhappy relationship on the verge of breakup, one might think of the problem as "why is she leaving me?", and focus on the faults and reasons of the other person. But thinking of the problem in terms of "what have I been doing wrong" might lead one to focus more on oneself and think about what one might do to rescue the relationship. Similarly, instead of focusing on how a business competitor is taking away business from one's own company, the real problem to focus on might be why one's own company is not doing enough to adapt to the new market.
- If the problem concerns how a goal or target might be achieved, it is important to avoid vagueness and try to be more specific. If we are thinking about how to improve a company's profit, it would be useful to say more precisely how much of an increase we are looking for, in order to know whether the goal is realistic or not.
- It is also important to think about whether the problem so-defined is real or not. What data is available to show that there is a real problem to be solved? For example a university might be concerned that student standards are dropping. It would be useful to have information available confirming that this is not a subjective judgment but an actual declining trend. Gathering more data about the problem can also help us understand how serious it is and which are the most important factors to consider in dealing with it.

Problem classification

Having defined the problem, the next thing to do is to know what type of problem it is. Generally, a problem might be posed in the form of a question, and we might classify these questions into three kinds:

- Empirical questions
- Conceptual questions
- Evaluative questions

Empirical questions are questions concerning empirical facts, particular events or causal processes in the world. Here are some examples :

- Who is the current president of the United States?
- Did Germany participated in the First World War?
- Can AIDS be transmitted through kissing?
- Is the universe expanding?

To answer an empirical question, we need observations or experiments, or solicit the help of experts in the relevant field, such as physics, biology, psychology, economics, history, etc. Very often these questions cannot be answered by sitting in the armchair. For example, consider the question of whether human beings evolved from other forms of animals. This is an empirical question to be answered by careful scientific study. We might have certain convictions or intuitions about the answer, and be inclined to believe one way or another. But these prior beliefs should be evaluated according to empirical data. Pure thinking is not going to help find the answer.

On the other hand, pure thinking can help us answer conceptual questions. Here are some examples of conceptual questions:

- Is rule of law sufficient for democracy?
- Can a woman sexually harass a man?
- Are there any married bachelors?
- Is 981567 divisible by 3?

To answer these questions, we appeal to logic and the meaning of words and concepts to arrive at the answers without engaging in experiments or observations. In other words, mere thinking is

enough to answer these questions. Here, "mere thinking" refers to conceptual analysis and reasoning. For example, in answering the first question, we note that "rule of law" means the consistent use of due procedure and legal processes in a society where the legal principles are not arbitrarily applied or withheld. But we might note that the laws in a society where this is the case might nonetheless discriminate against certain social groups and provide them with inadequate political representation in the government. As long as these rules are not abused and are consistently applied, there is rule of law but no democracy. Using pure reasoning and our understanding of the concepts of "rule of law" and "democracy", we conclude that rule of law is not sufficient for democracy.

Similarly, the other conceptual questions are questions which can be answered without empirical observations or scientific study.

Finally, let us consider evaluative questions. Evaluative questions are questions which explicitly or implicitly invoke values and norms. These questions relate to value judgments about moral correctness or aesthetic values. Here are some examples :

- Is abortion immoral?
- Is Beethoven a more profound composer than Mozart?
- Should the amount of unemployment benefits be raised?

To answer this type of questions, we need to understand the distinction between intrinsic and instrumental values. Very briefly, intrinsic value is value that exists on its own. The intrinsic value of an object does not depend on its being used to satisfy some further end. But if something has value only because and in so far as it can be used to satisfy a further end, and would cease to have value if it fails to do so, then the value involved is instrumental value.
So here is a summary :

Mixed questions
Conceptual questions might be regarded as the most basic kind of question among the three categories. This is because factual and evaluative questions can only be answered if we understand the relevant concepts invoked by the questions. For example, if we do not know what a black hole is, we cannot answer the question "Can light escape from a black hole?" Similarly, we need to know what abortion is if we want to find out whether abortion is immoral.
Empirical questions are generally independent of evaluative questions. We do not have to consider any evaluative judgments if we want to answer an empirical question. However, the

reverse is not true. To answer many evaluative questions, we need to know quite a few empirical facts. For example, to evaluate whether an action is morally right or wrong, we usually have to consider the consequences of the action, or the motives behind the action. Once we know these empirical facts, we can then apply the correct moral standards to judge whether the action is good or bad. Suppose we want to find out whether it was right for the US to drop two atomic bombs onto Japan. We have to consider empirical facts such as Japanese atrocities during the Second World War, the extent of the destruction caused by the atomic bombs, the number of innocent civilians killed as a result, and whether there are other alternative ways of ending the war. These are all empirical matters which are important to consider in answering the questions.

Many disputes and controversies persist because of bad thinking, and bad thinking techniques might take the form of failure to understand the nature and type of the questions that have to be answered. The distinction between three types of questions discussed here is a simple and crucial part of the methodology in problem-solving.

Solving problems

Polya's 1971 book *How to solve it* is a classic text on problem solving. According to Polya, most problem-solving strategies can be classified under four general principles:

- Understand the nature of the problem.
- Draw up a plan to solve the problem.
- Try out the plan.
- Monitor the outcome of the plan.

Let us highlight some important points to consider when we have to apply these four principles:

1. *Understand the nature of the problem*

- Is the problem well-defined? Can the problem be analysed into smaller sub-problems?
- What type of problem is it? (See the last tutorial on classifying problems.)
- What information can we gather about the problem?
- Have I / other people solve this problem before? What lessons might their experiences offer?
- What are the constraints (time, money, resources, etc) in solving the problem?

2. *Draw up a plan*

• Determine the time and resources needed.
• Carry out necessary preparations, e.g. research, coordination, etc.
• For solving problems that require a complex plan, write down the plan in a systematic manner.

3. *Try out the plan*
• Monitor progress to make sure that things go according to plan.
• Record errors or special considerations for future review

4. *Monitor the outcome of the plan*

• This is the part of problem-solving that most people tend to ignore. One way for us to improve is to review past experiences and understand why we succeed or fail. So it is important to monitor our own performance review the whole exercise in order that we can do even better in the future.

Charts & diagrams

Charts and diagrams play an extremely important role in displaying information and assisting reasoning. They help us visualize complex processes, or make explicit the structure of problems and tasks. On this page we introduce some common visual tools.

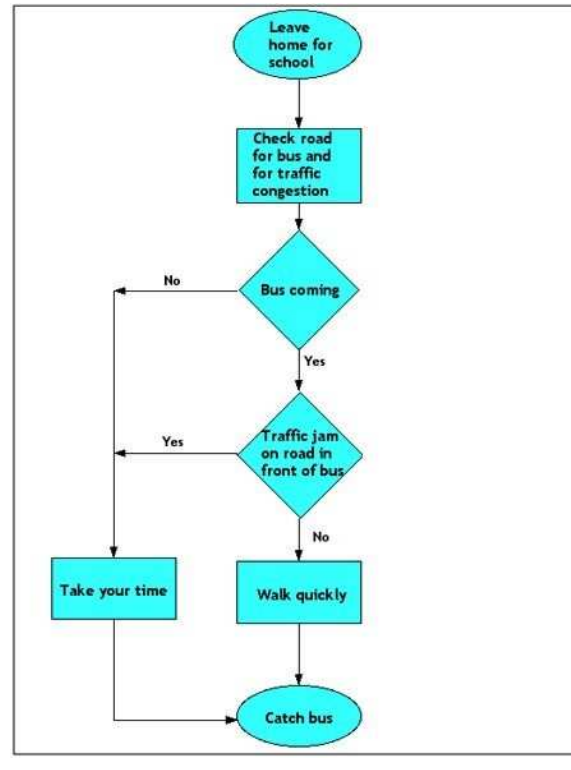
• Flowcharts
• Decision trees
• Cause and effect diagrams

It is hard to describe systematically the art of using diagrams to present relevant information accurately and succintly. But here are a few simple reminders on interpreting and presenting charts containing statistical information:

• Misleading diagrams

Flowcharts

A flowchart is a diagram constructed from connected shapes representing a process or a plan. The steps of the process are represented by differently shaped boxes. How the process flows is represented by arrows connecting the boxes.



Here is an example of a simple flowchart illustrating the process of going to school. Flowcharts have two main functions. First, a flowchart can be used to analyze a complex process, by breaking down the process into individual steps or components. The diagram can then be used :

- as a basis for further discussion of the process
- to identify points where data can be collected and analyzed
- to identify bottlenecks and inefficiencies
- to explain the process to other people

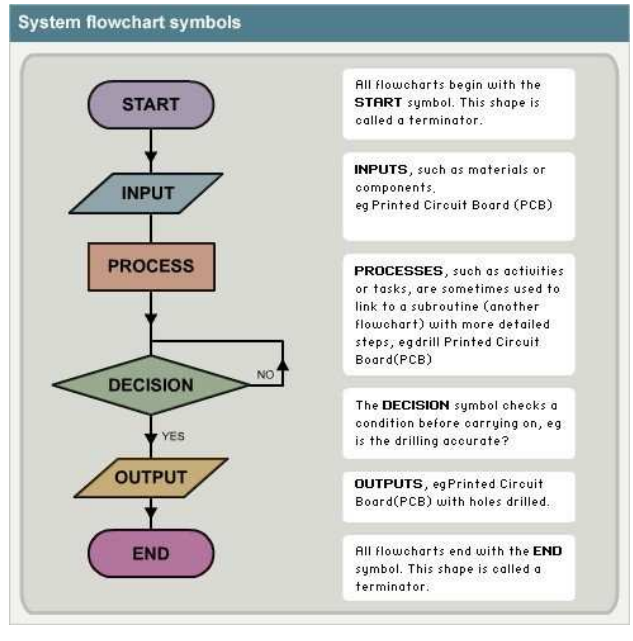
A flowchart can also be used to define a process or project to be implemented. Such a diagram is useful because:

- it spells out clearly the steps that have to be implemented
- it provides the basis for identifying potential problems
- responsibilities for different parts of the process can be clearly defined

The modern flowchart originated in computer science as a tool for representing algorithms and computer programs, but the use of flowcharts has extended to the representation of all other kinds of processes.

Notation

In a standard flowchart, different shapes have different conventional meanings. The meanings of some of the more common shapes are as follows:

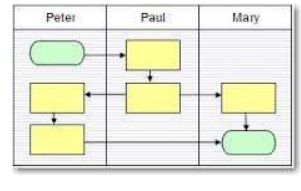


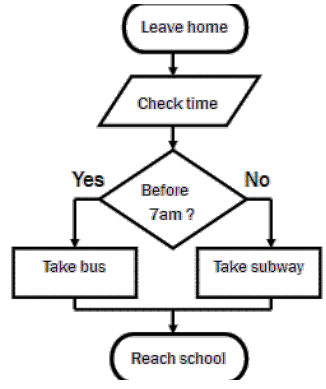
One type of flowchart which is quite useful in project planning is *deployment flowchart*. A deployment flowchart is just a flowchart drawn inside a table with different columns, e.g.

The table is divided into columns representing the parties responsible for implementing the process. Different parts of the process are placed in the column for which the relevant party is in charge. The diagram reveals clearly how responsibilities for the sub-processes are distributed.

Hints for drawing flowcharts

- Write down the title of the flowchart. Identify the process that is shown.
- Make sure that the starting and ending points of the process can be easily located.
- Avoid crossing flow-lines if possible.
- Use informative labels in your diagram.
- The amount of details in a flowchart depends on the level of analysis required.

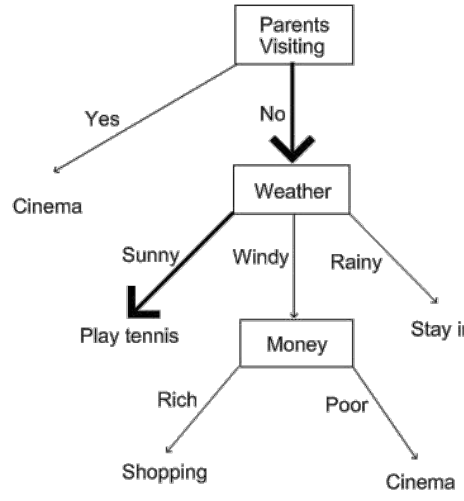




Analyzing flowcharts

In a management context the following considerations should be taken into account in reviewing a flowchart:

- Where are the labor intensive processes?
- Where would possible delays and hiccups most likely occur?
- Are there places particularly suited for quality control?
- Are there duplicated or redundant processes?
- Is it possible to streamline any process or reduce the number of operations?
- Has any process been omitted?



Decision trees

A decision tree diagram is a diagram that represents the possible consequences of a series of decisions in some situation.

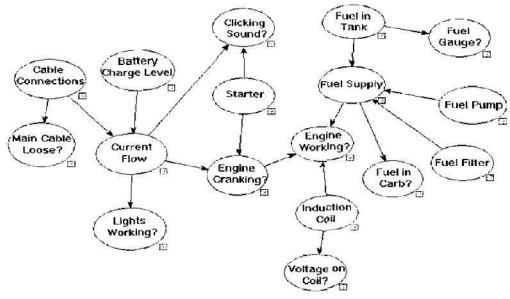
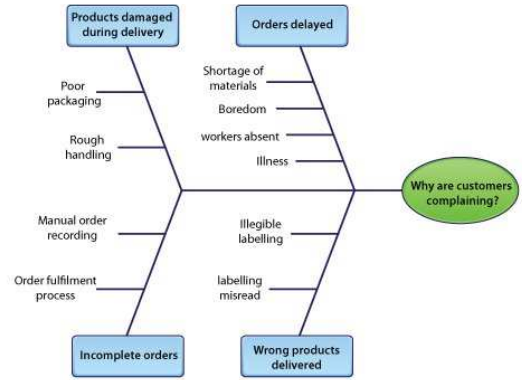


Figure 1. Bayesian Network for Example of Car Diagnostics

Bayesian causal net diagram



Fishbone diagram

Cause and effect diagrams

There are two main types of cause and effect diagrams - Bayesian causal nets, and fishbone diagrams. Bayesian causal nets are rather similar to decision tree diagrams.

Identifying Arguments

What is an argument?

A crucial part of critical thinking is to identify, construct, and evaluate *arguments*.

In everyday life, people often use "argument" to mean a quarrel between people. But in logic and critical thinking, an argument is a list of statements, one of which is the *conclusion* and the others are the *premises* or *assumptions* of the argument.

To give an argument is to provide a set of premises as reasons for accepting the conclusion. To give an argument is not necessarily to attack or criticize someone. Arguments can also be used to support other people's viewpoints.

Here is an example of an argument:

If you want to find a good job, you should work hard. You do want to find a good job. So you should work hard.

The first two sentences here are the premises of the argument, and the last sentence is the conclusion. To give this argument is to offer the premises as reasons for accepting the conclusion.

A few points to note:

- Dogmatic people tend to make assertions without giving reasons. When they are criticized they often fail to give arguments to defend their own opinions.
- To improve our critical thinking skills, we should develop the habit of giving good arguments to support our opinions.
- To defend an opinion, think about whether you can give more than one argument to support it. Also, think about potential objections to your opinion, e.g. arguments against your opinion. A good thinker will consider the arguments on both sides of an issue.

The standard format
Presenting arguments in the standard format

When it comes to the analysis and evaluation of an argument, it is often useful to label the premises and the conclusion, and display them on separate lines with the conclusion at the

bottom :

(Premise 1) If you want to find a good job, you should work hard.
(Premise 2) You do want to find a good job.
(Conclusion) So you should work hard.

Let us call this style of presenting an argument a presentation in *the standard format*. Here we rewrite two more arguments using the standard format:

We should not inflict unnecessary pain on cows and pigs. After all, we should not inflict unnecessary pain on any animal with consciousness, and cows and pigs are animals with consciousness.

(Premise 1) We should not inflict unnecessary pain on any animal with consciousness.
(Premise 2) Cows and pigs are animals with consciousness.
(Conclusion) We should not inflict unnecessary pain on cows and pigs.

If this liquid is acidic, the litmus paper would have turned red. But it hasn't, so the liquid is not acidic.

(Premise 1) If the liquid is acidic, the litmus paper would have turned red.
(Premise 2) The litmus paper has not turned red.
(Conclusion) The liquid is not acidic.

In presenting an argument in the standard format the premises and the conclusion are clearly identified. Sometimes we also rewrite some of the sentences to make their meaning clearer, as in the second premise of the second example. Notice also that a conclusion need not always come at the end of a passage containing an argument, as in the first example. In fact, sometimes the conclusion of an argument might not be explicitly written out. For example it might be expressed by a rhetorical question:

How can you believe that corruption is acceptable? It is neither fair nor legal!
In presenting an argument in the standard format, we have to rewrite the argument more explicitly as follows:
(Premise) Corruption is not fair and it is not legal.
(Conclusion) Corruption is not acceptable.

• If you want to improve your reading and comprehension skills, you should practice reconstructing the arguments that you come across by rewriting them carefully in the standard format.
• Presenting arguments is not just a way to defend your own opinion. It helps us understand

other people as well.

Good Arguments
What is a good argument?

Let's discuss what a good argument is. The concept of a good argument is of course quite vague. So what we are trying to do here is to give it a somewhat more precise definition. To begin with, make sure that you know what a sound argument is.

Criterion #1 : A good argument must have true premises
This means that if we have an argument with one or more false premises, then it is not a good argument. The reason for this condition is that we want a good argument to be one that can convince us to accept the conclusion. Unless the premises of an argument are all true, we would have no reason to accept to accept its conclusion.

Criterion #2 : A good argument must be either valid or strong
Is validity a necessary condition for a good argument? Certainly many good arguments are valid. Example:
All whales are mammals.
All mammals are warm-blooded.
So all whales are warm-blooded.

But it is not true that good arguments must be valid. We often accept arguments as good, even though they are not valid. Example:
No baby in the past has ever been able to understand quantum physics.

This is surely a good argument, but it is not valid. It is true that no baby in the past has ever been able to understand quantum physics. But it does not follow logically that Kitty's baby will not be able to do so. To see that the argument is not valid, note that it is not logically impossible for Kitty's baby to have exceptional brain development so that the baby can talk and learn and understand quantum physics while still being a baby. Extremely unlikely to be sure, but not logically impossible, and this is enough to show that the argument is not valid. But because such possibilities are rather unlikely, we still think that the true premises strongly support the conclusion and so we still think that the argument is a good one.

In other words, a good argument need not be valid. But presumably if it is not valid it must be inductively strong. If an argument is inductively weak, then it cannot be a good argument since the premises do not provide good reasons for accepting the conclusion.

Criterion #3 : The premises of a good argument must not beg the question
Notice that criteria #1 and #2 are not sufficient for a good argument. First of all, we certainly don't want to say that circular arguments are good arguments, even if they happen to be sound. Suppose someone offers the following argument:
It is going to rain tomorrow. Therefore, it is going to rain tomorrow.

So far we think that a good argument must (1) have true premises, and (2) be valid or inductively strong. Are these conditions sufficient? The answer is no. Consider this example:

Smoking is bad for your health.
Therefore smoking is bad for your health.

This argument is actually sound. The premise is true, and the argument is valid, because the conclusion does follow from the premise! But as an argument surely it is a terrible argument. This is a *circular argument* where the conclusion also appears as a premise. It is of course not a good argument, because it does not provide independent reasons for supporting the conclusion. So we say that it *begs the question*.

Here is another example of an argument that begs the question :

Since Mary would not lie to her best friend, and Mary told me that I am indeed her best friend, I must really be Mary's best friend.

Whether this argument is circular depends on your definition of a "circular argument". Some people might not consider this a circular argument in that the conclusion does not appear explicitly as a premise. However, the argument still begs the question and so is not a good argument.

Criterion #4 : The premises of a good argument must be plausible and relevant to the conclusion

Here, plausibility is a matter of having good reasons for believing that the premises are true. As for relevance, this is the requirement that the the subject matter of the premises must be related to that of the conclusion. Why do we need this additional criterion? The reason is that claims and theories can happen to be true even though nobody has got any evidence that they are true. If the premises of an argument happen to be true but there is no evidence indicating that they are, the argument is not going to be pursuasive in convincing people that the conclusion is correct. A good argument, on the other hand, is an argument that a rational person should accept, so a good argument should satisfy the additional criterion mentioned.

Summary

So, here is our final definition of a good argument :
A good argument is an argument that is either valid or strong, and with plausible premises that are true, do not beg the question, and are relevant to the conclusion.
Now that you know what a good argument is, you should be able to explain why these claims are mistaken. Many people who are not good at critical thinking often make these mistakes :

- "The conclusion of this argument is true, so some or all the premises are true."
- "One or more premises of this argument are false, so the conclusion is false."
- "Since the conclusion of the argument is false, all its premises are false."
- "The conclusion of this argument does not follow from the premises. So it must be false.

Cognitive biases

Cognitive biases are certain pervasive thinking habits which are likely to lead to errors in reasoning, but which seem to be a very common part of human psychology. The study of cognitive biases is a very important part of cognitive science and psychology, and relevant to many other areas, such as economics, management and education.

Some examples of cognitive biases

- *Confirmation bias*: The tendency to look for information that confirms our existing preconceptions, making it more likely to ignore or neglect data that disconfirms our beliefs. For example, when we compare ourselves with others we are more likely to remember other people's mistakes and less likely to think of our own.
- *Framing bias*: The tendency to be influenced by the way in which a problem is formulated even though it should not affect the solution. Example: Whether a patient decides to go ahead with a surgery can be affected by whether the surgery is described in terms of success rate or rate of failure, even though both numbers provide the same information.
- *Overconfidence effect* (the above-average effect): Many people tend to over-estimate their abilities. Surveys across most areas of expertise indicate that more than half of the people think that they are better than the other half with respect to that expertise. For example, more than 50% of the population might think that they have above-average intelligence, but they cannot all be right. So many people tend to over-estimate their abilities and lack insight into their real performance.

Biases relating to probability
Many cognitive biases are related to judgments and reasoning about probability and statistics. Here are some examples:

- *Clustering illusion*: The tendency to attribute patterns and underlying causes to random events when there are none.
- *Gambler's fallacy*: The error of thinking that a random event can be influenced by past

random events. Example: Thinking that because a certain number has just come up in a lottery, it is less likely (or more likely) to come up in the next round.

- Example: People's preference for bottled water, they often regard things as having higher quality when they are nicely packaged.

What is critical thinking?

Critical thinking is the ability to think clearly and rationally. It includes the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking. Someone with critical thinking skills is able to do the following:

- understand the logical connections between ideas
- dentify, construct and evaluate arguments
- detect inconsistencies and common mistakes in reasoning
- solve problems systematically
- identify the relevance and importance of ideas
- reflect on the justification of one's own beliefs and values

Critical thinking is not a matter of accumulating information. A person with a good memory and who knows a lot of facts is not necessarily good at critical thinking. A critical thinker is able to deduce consequences from what he/she knows, and he/she knows how to make use of information to solve problems, and to seek relevant sources of information to inform himself/herself.

Critical thinking should not be confused with being argumentative or being critical of other people. Although critical thinking skills can be used in exposing fallacies and bad reasoning, critical thinking can also play an important role in cooperative reasoning and constructive tasks. Critical thinking can help us acquire knowledge, improve our theories, and strengthen arguments. We can use critical thinking to enhance work processes and improve social institutions.

Some people believe that critical thinking hinders creativity because it requires following the rules of logic and rationality, but creativity might require breaking rules. This is a misconception. Critical thinking is quite compatible with thinking "out-of-the-box", challenging consensus and pursuing less popular approaches. If anything, critical thinking is an essential part of creativity because we need critical thinking to evaluate and improve our creative ideas.

Why Critical Thinking?

The Problem
Everyone thinks. It is our nature to do so. But much of our thinking, left to itself, is biased, distorted, partial, uninformed, or downright prejudiced. Yet, the quality of our life and that of what we produce, make, or build depends precisely on the quality of our thought. Shoddy thinking is costly, both in money and in quality of life. Excellence in thought, however, must be systematically cultivated.

A Definition
Critical thinking is that mode of thinking — about any subject, content, or problem — in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully analyzing, assessing, and reconstructing it. Critical thinking is self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking. It presupposes assent to rigorous standards of excellence and mindful command of their use. It entails effective communication and problem-solving abilities, as well as a commitment to overcome our native egocentrism and sociocentrism.

To Analyze Thinking
Identify its purpose, and question at issue, as well as its information, inferences(s), assumptions, implications, main concept(s), and point of view.

To Assess Thinking
Check it for clarity, accuracy, precision, relevance, depth, breadth, significance, logic, and fairness.

The Result
A well-cultivated critical thinker:

- Raises vital questions and problems, formulating them clearly and precisely
- Gathers and assesses relevant information, using abstract ideas to interpret it effectively
- Comes to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions, testing them against relevant criteria and standards
- Thinks open-mindedly within alternative systems of thought, recognizing and assessing, as needs be, their assumptions, implications, and practical consequences
- Communicates effectively with others in figuring out solutions to complex problems.

The Etymology & Dictionary Definition of "Critical Thinking"

The concept of critical thinking we adhere to reflects a concept embedded not only in a core body of research over the last 30 to 50 years but also derived from roots in ancient Greek. The word ”critical” derives etymologically from two Greek roots: "kriticos" (meaning discerning judgment) and "kriterion" (meaning standards). Etymologically, then, the word implies the development of "discerning judgment based on standards."

In Webster’s New World Dictionary, the relevant entry reads "characterized by careful analysis and judgment" and is followed by the gloss, "critical — in its strictest sense — implies an attempt at objective judgment so as to determine both merits and faults." Applied to thinking, then, we might provisionally define critical thinking as thinking that explicitly aims at well-founded judgment and hence utilizes appropriate evaluative standards in the attempt to determine the true worth, merit, or value of something.

Our basic concept of critical thinking is, at root, simple. We could define it as the art of taking charge of your own mind. Its value is also at root simple: if we can take charge of our own minds, we can take charge of our lives; we can improve them, bringing them under our self command and direction. Of course, this requires that we learn self-discipline and the art of self-examination. This involves becoming interested in how our minds work, how we can monitor, fine tune, and modify their operations for the better. It involves getting into the habit of reflectively examining our impulsive and accustomed ways of thinking and acting in every dimension of our lives.

All that we do, we do on the basis of some motivations or reasons. But we rarely examine our motivations to see if they make sense. We rarely scrutinize our reasons critically to see if they are rationally justified. As consumers we sometimes buy things impulsively and uncritically, without stopping to determine whether we really need what we are inclined to buy or whether we can afford it or whether it’s good for our health or whether the price is competitive. As parents we often respond to our children impulsively and uncritically, without stopping to determine whether our actions are consistent with how we want to act as parents or whether we are contributing to their self esteem or whether we are discouraging them from thinking or from taking responsibility for their own behavior.

As citizens, too often we vote impulsively and uncritically, without taking the time to familiarize ourselves with the relevant issues and positions, without thinking about the long-run implications of what is being proposed, without paying attention to how politicians manipulate us by flattery or vague and empty promises. As friends, too often we become the victims of our

own infantile needs, "getting involved" with people who bring out the worst in us or who stimulate us to act in ways that we have been trying to change. As husbands or wives, too often we think only of our own desires and points of view, uncritically ignoring the needs and perspectives of our mates, assuming that what we want and what we think is clearly justified and true, and that when they disagree with us they are being unreasonable and unfair.
As patients, too often we allow ourselves to become passive and uncritical in our health care, not establishing good habits of eating and exercise, not questioning what our doctor says, not designing or following good plans for our own wellness. As teachers, too often we allow ourselves to uncritically teach as we have been taught, giving assignments that students can mindlessly do, inadvertently discouraging their initiative and independence, missing opportunities to cultivate their self-discipline and thoughtfulness.

It is quite possible and, unfortunately, quite "natural" to live an unexamined life; to live in a more or less automated, uncritical way. It is possible to live, in other words, without really taking charge of the persons we are becoming; without developing or acting upon the skills and insights we are capable of. However, if we allow ourselves to become unreflective persons — or rather, to the extent that we do — we are likely to do injury to ourselves and others, and to miss many opportunities to make our own lives, and the lives of others, fuller, happier, and more productive.

Of course, we are likely to make critical thinking a basic value in school only insofar as we make it a basic value in our own lives. Therefore, to become adept at teaching so as to foster critical thinking, we must become committed to thinking critically and reflectively about our own lives and the lives of those around us. We must become active, daily, practitioners of critical thought. We must regularly model for our students what it is to reflectively examine, critically assess, and effectively improve the way we live.

Critical thinking is that mode of thinking — about any subject, content, or problem — in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully analyzing, assessing, and reconstructing it. Critical thinking is self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking. It presupposes assent to rigorous standards of excellence and mindful command of their use. It entails effective communication and problem-solving abilities, as well as a commitment to overcome our native egocentrism and sociocentrism.

EDUCATION REFORM

Criterion-Referenced Test

Criterion-referenced tests and assessments are designed to measure student performance against a fixed set of predetermined criteria or learning standards—i.e., concise, written descriptions of what students are expected to know and be able to do at a specific stage of their education. In elementary and secondary education, criterion-referenced tests are used to evaluate whether students have learned a specific body of knowledge or acquired a specific skill set. For example, the curriculum taught in a course, academic program, or content area.\

If students perform at or above the established expectations—for example, by answering a certain percentage of questions correctly—they will pass the test, meet the expected standards, or be deemed "proficient." On a criterion-referenced test, every student taking the exam could theoretically fail if they don't meet the expected standard; alternatively, every student could earn the highest possible score. On criterion-referenced tests, it is not only possible, but desirable, for every student to pass the test or earn a perfect score. Criterion-referenced tests have been compared to driver's-license exams, which require would-be drivers to achieve a minimum passing score to earn a license.

Criterion-Referenced vs. Norm-Referenced Tests

Norm-referenced tests are designed to rank test takers on a "bell curve," or a distribution of scores that resembles, when graphed, the outline of a bell—i.e., a small percentage of students performing poorly, most performing average, and a small percentage performing well. To produce a bell curve each time, test questions are carefully designed to accentuate performance differences among test takers—not to determine if students have achieved specified learning standards, learned required material, or acquired specific skills. Unlike norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests measure performance against a fixed set of criteria.

Criterion-referenced tests may include multiple-choice questions, true-false questions, "open-ended" questions (e.g., questions that ask students to write a short response or an essay), or a combination of question types. Individual teachers may design the tests for use in a specific course, or they may be created by teams of experts for large companies that have contracts with state departments of education. Criterion-referenced tests may be high-stakes tests—i.e., tests that are used to make important decisions about students, educators, schools, or districts—or they may be "low-stakes tests" used to measure the academic achievement of individual students, identify learning problems, or inform instructional adjustments.

Well-known examples of criterion-referenced tests include Advanced Placement exams and the National Assessment of Educational Progress, which are both standardized tests administered to students throughout the United States. When testing companies develop

criterion-referenced standardized tests for large-scale use, they usually have committees of experts determine the testing criteria and passing scores, or the number of questions students will need to answer correctly to pass the test. Scores on these tests are typically expressed as a percentage.

It should be noted that passing scores—or "cut-off scores"—on criterion-referenced tests are judgment calls made by either individuals or groups. It's theoretically possible, for example, that a given test-development committee, if it had been made up of different individuals with different backgrounds and viewpoints, would have determined different passing scores for a certain test. For example, one group might determine that a minimum passing score is 70 percent correct answers, while another group might establish the cut-off score at 75 percent correct. For a related discussion, see proficiency.
Criterion-referenced tests created by individual teachers are also very common in American public schools. For example, a history teacher may devise a test to evaluate understanding and retention of a unit on World War II. The criteria in this case might include the causes and timeline of the war, the nations that were involved, the dates and circumstances of major battles, and the names and roles of certain leaders. The teacher may design a test to evaluate student understanding of the criteria and determine a minimum passing score.

While criterion-referenced test scores are often expressed as percentages, and many have minimum passing scores, the test results may also be scored or reported in alternative ways. For example, results may be grouped into broad achievement categories—such as "below basic," "basic," "proficient," and "advanced"—or reported on a 1–5 numerical scale, with the numbers representing different levels of achievement. As with minimum passing scores, proficiency levels are judgment calls made by individuals or groups that may choose to modify proficiency levels by raising or lowering them.

The following are a few representative examples of how criterion-referenced tests and scores may be used:
• To determine whether students have learned expected knowledge and skills. If the criterion-referenced tests are used to make decisions about grade promotion or diploma eligibility, they would be considered "high-stakes tests."
• To determine if students have learning gaps or academic deficits that need to be addressed. For a related discussion, see formative assessment.
• To evaluate the effectiveness of a course, academic program, or learning experience by using "pre-tests" and "post-tests" to measure learning progress over the duration of the instructional period.
• To evaluate the effectiveness of teachers by factoring test results into job-performance evaluations. For a related discussion, see value-added measures
• To measure progress toward the goals and objectives described in an "individualized education plan" for students with disabilities.

• To determine if a student or teacher is qualified to receive a license or certificate.• To measure the academic achievement of students in a given state, usually for the purposes of comparing academic performance among schools and districts.
• To measure the academic achievement of students in a given country, usually for the purposes of comparing academic performance among nations. A few widely used examples of international-comparison tests include the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS).

Reform

Criterion-referenced tests are the most widely used type of test in American public education. All the large-scale standardized tests used to measure public-school performance, hold schools accountable for improving student learning results, and comply with state or federal policies—such as the No Child Left Behind Act—are criterion-referenced tests, including the assessments being developed to measure student achievement of the Common Core State Standards. Criterion-referenced tests are used for these purposes because the goal is to determine whether educators and schools are successfully teaching students what they are expected to learn.

Criterion-referenced tests are also used by educators and schools practicing proficiency-based learning, a term that refers to systems of instruction, assessment, grading, and academic reporting that are based on students demonstrating mastery of the knowledge and skills they are expected to learn before they progress to the next lesson, get promoted to the next grade level, or receive a diploma. In most cases, proficiency-based systems use state learning standards to determine academic expectations and define "proficiency" in a given course, content area, or grade level. Criterion-referenced tests are one method used to measure academic progress and achievement in relation to standards.

Following a wide variety of state and federal policies aimed at improving school and teacher performance, criterion-referenced standardized tests have become an increasingly prominent part of public schooling in the United States. When focused on reforming schools and improving student achievement, these tests are used in a few primary ways:

• To hold schools and educators accountable for educational results and student performance. In this case, test scores are used as a measure of effectiveness, and low scores may trigger a variety of consequences for schools and teachers.

• To evaluate whether students have learned what they are expected to learn. In this case, test scores are seen as a representative indicator of student achievement.

• To identify gaps in student learning and academic progress. Test scores may be used, along with other information about students, to diagnose learning needs so that educators can provide appropriate services, instruction, or academic support.
• To identify achievement gaps among different student groups. Students of color, students who are not proficient in English, students from low-income households, and students with physical or learning disabilities tend to score, on average, well below white students from more educated, higher income households on standardized tests. In this case, exposing and highlighting achievement gaps may be seen as an essential first step in the
effort to educate all students well, which can lead to greater public awareness and resulting changes in educational policies and programs.

• To determine whether educational policies are working as intended. Elected officials and education policy makers may rely on standardized-test results to determine whether their laws and policies are working as intended, or to compare educational performance from
school to school or state to state. They may also use the results to persuade the public and other elected officials that their policies are in the best interest of children and society.

Debate
The widespread use of high-stakes standardized tests in the United States has made criterion-referenced tests an object of criticism and debate. While many educators believe that criterion-referenced tests are a fair and useful way to evaluate student, teacher, and school performance, others argue that the overuse, and potential misuse, of the tests could have negative consequences that outweigh their benefits.

The following are a few representative arguments typically made by proponents of criterion referenced testing:

• The tests are better suited to measuring learning progress than norm-referenced

exams, and they give educators information they can use to improve teaching and school performance.

• The tests are fairer to students than norm-referenced tests because they don't compare t

he relative performance of students; they evaluate achievement against a common
and consistently applied set of criteria.

• The tests apply the same learning standards to all students, which can hold underprivileged or disadvantaged students to the same high expectations as other students.

Historically, students of color, students who are not proficient in English, students from low-income households, and students with physical or learning disabilities have suffered from lower academic achievement, and many educators contend that this pattern of underperformance results, at least in part, from lower academic expectations. Raising academic expectations for these student groups, and making sure they reach those expectations, is believed to promote greater equity in education.

• The tests can be constructed with open-ended questions and tasks that require students to use higher-level cognitive skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, reasoning, analysis, or interpretation. Multiple-choice and true-false questions promote memorization and factual recall, but they do not ask students to apply what they have learned to solve a challenging problem or write insightfully about a complex issue, for example.

The following are representative arguments typically made by critics of criterion-referenced testing:

• The tests are only as accurate or fair as the learning standards upon which they are based. If the standards are vaguely worded, or if they are either too difficult or too easy for the students being evaluated, the associated test results will reflect the flawed standards. A test administered in eleventh grade that reflects a level of knowledge and skill students should have acquired in eighth grade would be one general example. Alternatively, tests may not be appropriately "aligned" with learning standards, so that even if the standards are clearly written, age appropriate, and focused on the right knowledge and skills, the test might not designed well enough to achievement of the standards.

• The process of determining proficiency levels and passing scores on criterion-referenced tests can be highly subjective or misleading—and the potential consequences can be significant, particularly if the tests are used to make high-stakes decisions about students, teachers, and schools. Because reported "proficiency" rises and falls in direct relation to the standards or cut-off scores used to make a proficiency determination, it's possible to manipulate the perception and interpretation of test results by elevating or lowering either standards and passing scores. And when educators are evaluated based on test scores, their job security may rest on potentially misleading or flawed results. Even the reputations of national education systems can be negatively affected when a large percentage of students

fail to achieve "proficiency" on international assessments.

• The subjective nature of proficiency levels allows the tests to be exploited for political purposes to make it appear that schools are either doing better or worse than they actually are. For example, some states have been accused of lowering proficiency standards of standardized tests to increase the number of students achieving "proficiency," and thereby avoid the consequences—negative press, public criticism, large numbers of students being held back or denied diplomas (in states that base graduation eligibility on test scores)—that may result from large numbers of students failing to achieve expected or required proficiency levels.

• If the tests primarily utilize multiple-choice questions—which, in the case of standardizedtesting, makes scoring faster and less expensive because it can be done by computers rather than human scorers—they will promote rote memorization and factual recall in schools, rather than the higher-order thinking skills students will need in college, careers, and

adult life. For example, the overuse or misuse of standardized testing can encourage a phenomenon known as "teaching to the test," which means that teachers focus too much on test

preparation and the academic content that will be evaluated by standardized tests, typically at the expense of other important topics and skills

History and Debate of School Vouchers

A school voucher is given to parents by their government to be applied to the costs of tuition at a private school of the parents' choosing in place of attendance at the local state school which the student would normally attend. While educational structures vary widely by country, Chile, Sweden and Hong Kong are all examples of countries that have a working school voucher system. In the United States, school vouchers, also called education vouchers, were first used in the 19th century, but they experienced a resurgence in the Civil Rights era when Southern states allowed them as a way of undermining integration in the public schools and letting students attend so-called "segregation academies" instead.

Both the Reagan and Bush administrations were strongly in favor of vouchers as well. Today, the voucher system does not sanction any kind of discrimination; it simply allows citizens to have some additional control over how the tax dollars they already pay for education are used. Parents are able to spend the portion of their tax that funds education directly by applying it to institutions that may perform better than public schools or provide a specialized context that their children need but that is unavailable through state-funded institutions.

School Voucher Criticism and Debate

While the voucher system has many proponents, several criticisms of it have arisen over the years as well. Critics of the system charge that allowing people to opt out of public education in this way undermines the entire public education system and puts it at risk of losing funding and thereby declining in quality. Proponents argue that the voucher system allows free market competition in education and will inspire all parties to do a better job in order to attract more students. This effect has been proven at the university level. Public school teacher unions have been among the most vocal critics of the education voucher program, saying that it lowers educational standards and puts minority groups at risk.

It also is said to create a system in which there is very little accountability to the taxpayer, since school boards and other elected officials deal only with the public education system and have no input into what private schools teach or how they are run. Others have claimed that when vouchers are applied to religious-based education, this is an unconstitutional use of tax money that potentially violates the separation of church and state. In addition, the amount of the voucher is usually not sufficient to pay the entire private school tuition, thus making it more likely that wealthier families will benefit while poorer ones will not; in general, critics of vouchers often feel that they harm children who are already disadvantaged, increasing the risk that they

will not get a good education or go on to get a lucrative job.
Because of the widely varying views on the effects of such a system, the school vouchers debate continues to be a source of much controversy; in fact, it has resulted in lawsuits thathave gone all the way to the Supreme Court, who created a test of its constitutionality called the Private Choice Test and removed barriers to further implementation of education vouchers. Political support for vouchers in America remains mixed, with conservatives tending to look on them positively and liberals tending to voice considerable skepticism.

History and Debate of Homeschooling
Homeschooling is rapidly growing in popularity, with the numbers increasing by at least 7 percent every year. There are currently approximately two million children homeschooled throughout the United States. Homeschooling is a hot topic, with a great deal of pros and cons.

Pros to the Homeschooling Debate
First and foremost, homeschooling offers a great deal of freedom, especially educational freedom. While the basics are certainly covered for all homeschool students, the students have a great deal of freedom over what they specifically learn and when. Students can focus on the subject matter that gets them excited, whether that is history, biology or creative writing. Next, homeschooling offers a great deal of physical freedom. Without the strict schedule of school hours, homework and school trips, families have much more freedom to vacation at odd times, visit museums during the week and other such activities. Additionally, homeschooling offers emotional freedom. Students often experience troubles with bullies, peer pressure, boredom and competition. In a homeschool environment, these factors are eliminated. Students are able to think, dress and act the way that they want, making sure that self-esteem remains intact. Lastly, homeschooling offers religious freedom not found in public schools, which is definitely important to many families.

There are many other pros to homeschooling as well. Members of homeschooling families often form significantly closer family relationships. Homeschooling provides a sense of stability to families during difficult times, whether it is illness, moving, death or a new family member. Homeschooling ensures that kids can get the rest they need. No longer are kids forced to rise before dawn to slave away in early morning classes. Lastly, homeschooling eliminates the need for busywork. Homeschooling is a much more efficient way to teach and learn, and can eliminate the need for homework.

Cons to the Homeschooling Debate

While homeschooling can do a great deal of good, there are also a number of disadvantages. First, there are the time restraints. Whether you work, are a single parent or simply choose a time-intensive schooling method, there is a great deal of factors limiting the time available for

homeschooling. Financial restrains are another concern, as a source of income is often lost when the decision is made to homeschool. The closeness of homeschooling may prove too much for some families, as parents often must spend a larger amount of time with their children.

Other disadvantages come from limited social interactions. First, team sports opportunities are limited for most homeschoolers, especially teenagers who want to participate in competitive sports. Homeschoolers may find themselves limited in outside connection. While family interaction is great, kids should interact with others outside of the family in order to live full and well-developed lives. Lastly, homeschooling is considered unusual, so you may experience negative comments and attitudes as a result of homeschooling.

History and Debate of National Health Care

National health insurance, if established in the United States, would create a single payer health care system. This means that everyone would have the same health insurance card and that all medical expenses would be paid from a single fund. Under this type of system, the funds that pay for the medical expenses of the entire population are obtained from a number of sources. Employers, states and even private citizens must contribute to the fund.

Many nations have established a national health insurance plan. The United Kingdom, for example, offers its National Health Service to all citizens. Australia also offers Medicare to all of its citizens. The Medicare plan of the United States is an example of a single payer system, but is currently available only to certain people. Establishing a national health insurance system would be similar to expanding Medicare to all people.

There are several different forms of national health insurance. In Canada, healthcare services are offered by private parties that are under contract with the single payer. In the United Kingdom, doctors can work for anyone but all payment comes from one fund. Under most forms, the government serves as the single payer.

There have been many proposals for a single payer national health insurance plan in the United States. The first proposal was made in the state of California in 1994. In Minnesota, there was a motion to pass a bill to implement state-wide single payer health insurance. This bill has already been passed by several committees. California and Illinois have also introduced similar bills. If the United States were to establish national health insurance, it would likely mirror the plans called for by these states but on a larger scale.

Several private groups of medical professionals have also called for the establishment of a national health insurance system in the United States. Physicians for a National Health Program and the California Nurses Association are just two of these. The issue has been a source of great debate in the last few Presidential elections. In February of 2009, one poll indicated that 59 percent of physicians felt that national health insurance would be a positive change.

Proponents of National Health Care

Those who do support the establishment of a national health insurance system have many reasons for doing so. Generally, these people believe that health care is a right, not a privilege and should be available to all people regardless of employment status or income. Currently, most Americans receive health insurance through their employers. The quality of the insurance depends on the job that a person has, which leaves many Americans with less insurance than they need. Doctors are also selective in which patients they treat, preferring to treat those with

private insurance rather than those who are covered by Medicare, which does not pay as well.

Opponents of National Health Care

Those who are against the idea of national health insurance often feel that it is not the government's place to interfere in the health care system. They may feel as though it is unfair for those who contribute more to the system to get the same care as those who contribute less. They often feel as though health care is a privilege, rather than a right.
The United States is one of the few first world nations that does not have a national health insurance plan. Several groups are calling for change, however, and it is likely that changes will be made in the future.

CREATIVITY

There are two basic thinking skills - *critical and creative thinking*. They are both crucial for solving problems and discovering new knowledge. Critical thinking is the ability to think clearly and rationally. Creativity is a matter of coming up with new and useful possibilities. They are both crucial for solving problems and discovering new knowledge.

Three basic principles

For many people, creativity is something reserved for scientists or artists. But this is to ignore the fact that we are faced with countless problems in our daily life, and it is precisely creative thinking that helps us come up with solutions to these problems. We need to make use of our creativity whether we are thinking about how to earn more money or how to make our our loved ones happier.

Many people also seem to think that creativity is a matter of waiting for inspirations. How inspiring ideas come about is however regarded as a rather mysterious process, and it is just a fact that some people are more creative than others. But it would be a mistake to think that creativity is a passive state of mind. While it is true that there is no special algorithm for creativity, there are thinking skills that can be taught and things one can do to enhance one's creativity. But to begin with, we need to understand these three basic principles that underlie creativity.

Principle one: *New ideas are composed of old elements*

Critical thinking is mainly about correct thinking. Creativity is mainly about alternative possibilities - how to come up with new and useful ideas. A new idea might be a new theory, a new product, a new solution to a problem, or a conception for a piece of art.

To come up with something new is to produce something that is distinctive and special. The practical implication here is that in order to be creative we must be ready to deviate from the ordinary and the traditional. Many people have the habit of following instructions and are afraid of challenging the status quo or exploring anything new. This implies a certain courageous exploratory attitude and curiosity in one's character.
But where do new ideas come from? The simple answer is that new ideas are actually old ones rearranged in a new way. So there is a sense in which it is true that "there is nothing new under the sun." This applies not just to the creation of concepts or theories but also the launching of new fashion or cultural trends.

How do we generate new ideas from old ones? Roughly speaking, ideas are usually composed of different elements, and we look for new combination of ideas by joining different ideas together, deleting some elements, or replacing some elements by other ones. Consider the idea of a mobile phone. This idea is of course the combination of the idea of wireless information transmission and the idea of a telephone.

The first principle also has a practical implication - the ingredients for creativity depend on the store of ideas that are available for recombination. If you have a limited domain of knowledge, you will have fewer resources to draw from in forming new ideas. This is why intellectual curiosity and a wide knowledge base can significantly enhance one's creativity - one has in one's possession more concepts, theories and experience to choose from. This is also why it can be useful to try to solve a problem by consulting other people with different expertise.

Principle two: *Not all new ideas are on a par*

Creativity is not simply a matter of coming up with new ideas. The kind of creativity that is valued is the ability to come up with new and *useful* ideas, ideas that serve an important need or creates a new trend that makes an impact.

Creativity might be divided into *cognitive* and *artistic* creativity. Artistic creativity consists in the creation of artwork and expressing one's ideas and emotions through various forms of art. Critical thinking as such is not opposed to artistic creativity, but the enhancement of critical thinking skills obviously might not improve one's artistic creativity. However, critical thinking is a necessary condition for cognitive creativity. Cognitive creativity is a matter of coming up with solutions to practical or theoretical problems. This includes for example creating a new scientific theory, or launching a new commercial product.

Cognitive creativity has two parts - the generation of new ideas, and the evaluation and modification of new ideas. When we need new ideas to solve a problem, critical thinking is necessary to help determine the relevance and effectiveness of the idea. To build a rocket that flies to the moon, one should not violate logic or the laws of physics. The evaluation of any proposal to solve a problem must involve good critical thinking.

It is sometimes suggested that creativity often requires going against the usual conventions, and that new and important ideas might be lost if one is too critical. But good critical thinking does not mean that one must always be critical. If experience tells us that it is useful to brainstorm, that sometimes it might be productive to suspend one's critical judgment and list out new ideas before evaluating them, then it is of course rational to do so. This is certainly not inconsistent

with the principles of critical thinking. It is thus a serious misconception to regard critical thinking and cognitive creativity as opposed to each other.

Principle three: *Creativity is enhanced by the ability to detect connections between ideas*

Our store of ideas provides the ingredients to generate new ones, but it is important to remember that useful ideas might come from unexpected sources. A successful marketing campaign might appeal to certain psychological studies and relate to particular trends in the society. This involves seeing a connection between the subject matter one is interested in (the marketing exercise) and other subjects (sociology and psychology) which might seem somewhat remote.

As a concrete example, consider the so-called "fast skin" swimsuits that was introduced by the company Speedo around 1996. One of the key consideration in designing a swimsuit for athletes is to reduce the total amount of drag over the surface of the swimsuit. The company's researchers noticed that sharks are able to move very fast in water in part because of V-shaped ridges. Researchers designed swimwear fabric emulating sharkskin that produced less drag and turbulence. At the Sydney Olympics in 2000, 28 of 33 Olympic Gold Medal winners wore this type of swimsuit, testifying to its success.

So if we want to be creative, we must be ready to explore connections between different areas. First, this means we should have a wide knowledge base. Creative people are usually people who read widely, who have a great sense of curiosity, and are often willing to explore topics which do not bring about immediate benefits. Second, we should ensure that our learning processes should aim at a deep understanding of the connections between key concepts. Studying is not simply remembering bits and pieces of unrelated information. We should make sure that we look at the information we have from different angles, reformulate them systematically in a way to achieve better understanding.

Three types of values

Values are standards or ideals with which we evaluate actions, people, things, or situations. Beauty, honesty, justice, peace, generosity are all examples of values that many people endorse.

In thinking about values it is useful to distinguish them into three kinds:

•Personal values: values endorsed by an individual. For example, some people regard family as their most important values, and structure their lives so that they can spend more time with their family. Other people might value success instead, and give less time t
o their families in order to achieve their goals.

•Moral values: values that help determine what is morally right or wrong, e.g. freedom, fairness, equality, etc, well-being.

•Aesthetic values: values associated with the evaluation of artwork or beauty.

Hierarchy of Needs

What motivates behavior? According to humanist psychologist *Abraham Maslow,* our actions are motivated in order achieve certain needs. Maslow first introduced his concept of a hierarchy of needs in his 1943 paper "*A Theory of Human Motivation*" and his subsequent book *Motivation and Personality*. This hierarchy suggests that people are motivated to fulfill basic needs before moving on to other, more advanced needs.

While some of the existing schools of thought at the time (such as psychoanalysis and behaviorism) tended to focus on problematic behaviors, Maslow was much more interested in learning more about what makes people happy and the things that they do to achieve that aim.
As a humanist, Maslow believed that people have an inborn desire to be self-actualized, to be all they can be. In order to achieve these ultimate goals, however, a number of more basic needs must be met first such as the need for food, safety, love, and self-esteem.

From Basic to More Complex Needs

This hierarchy is most often displayed as a pyramid. The lowest levels of the pyramid are made up of the most basic needs, while the more complex needs are located at the top of the pyramid. Needs at the bottom of the pyramid are basic physical requirements including the need for food, water, sleep, and warmth. Once these lower-level needs have been met, people can move on to the next level of needs, which are for safety and security.

As people progress up the pyramid, needs become increasingly psychological and social. Soon, the need for love, friendship, and intimacy become important. Further up the pyramid, the need for personal esteem and feelings of accomplishment take priority. Maslow emphasized the importance of self-actualization, which is a process of growing and developing as a person in order to achieve individual potential.

Types of Needs

Maslow believed that these needs are similar to instincts and play a major role in motivating behavior. Physiological, security, social, and esteem needs are *deficiency needs* (also known as *D-needs*), meaning that these needs arise due to deprivation. Satisfying these lower-level needs is important in order to avoid unpleasant feelings or consequences.
Maslow termed the highest-level of the pyramid as *growth needs* (also known as *being needs* or *B-needs*). Growth needs do not stem from a lack of something, but rather from a desire to grow as a person.



There are five different levels in Maslow's hierarchy of needs:

1. **Physiological Needs**

These include the most basic needs that are vital to survival, such as the need for water, air, food, and sleep. Maslow believed that these needs are the most basic and instinctive needs in the hierarchy because all needs become secondary until these physiological needs are met.

2. **Security Needs**

These include needs for safety and security. Security needs are important for survival, but they are not as demanding as the physiological needs. Examples of security needs include a desire for steady employment, health care, safe neighborhoods, and shelter from the environment

3. **Social Needs**

These include needs for belonging, love, and affection. Maslow described these needs as less basic than physiological and security needs. Relationships such as friendships, romantic attachments, and families help fulfill this need for companionship and acceptance, as does involvement in social, community, or religious groups.

4. **Esteem Needs**

After the first three needs have been satisfied, esteem needs becomes increasingly important. These include the need for things that reflect on self-esteem, personal worth, social recognition, and accomplishment.

5. **Self-actualizing Needs**

This is the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Self-actualizing people are self-aware, concerned with personal growth, less concerned with the opinions of others, and interested fulfilling their potential.

Willingness and motivation

1 - Motivation and needs

The want of will is always motivated to want, and intellectualized.

Motivation can be understood as the whole of my reasons, I mean, of all that, from my interior, moves me to do (and to think and to decide). Can also express the aid it provides me another person to recognize my dominant motifs, having other higher, correct twisted reasons (not straight or right), to sort them or organizing them hierarchically.

Our will needs reasons and motives. One reason is the effect of finding a value. There is therefore a close relationship between motives and values.
Values are specifications as well. So I ask myself, which I consider valuable? Is it really?

We are beings who give and give in, but we also have needs. It is well-known theory about motivation developed by Abraham Maslow, focused on the needs.
The man is an needy being - Maslow says. - Evil one of your needs is satisfied, another appears in its place. This process is endless. Lasts from birth to death.

He discovered that human needs are arranged in a series of levels in a hierarchy of importance. From lowest to highest importance, there are five levels of needs: physiological, safety, social, self and self-realization.

The needs of each level are motivating while they are not reasonably satisfied. Rather, a satisfied need is not a motivator of human behavior.

Physiological needs are food, drink, rest, exercise, shelter, protection from the elements, etc. The needs acquired may be included at this level.

Security requirements are well known and many; at present enjoy a very special appreciation.

Social needs are to belong, to be associated), be accepted by peers, having friends, etc.

The needs of the self are, on one hand, those related to self-esteem (self-confidence, self help, success, competence, preparation, etc.); on the other, are those that relate to their reputation (gratitude, appreciation, respect, prestige, etc.).

The needs of self-realization (the vertex of man's needs) are to give life to our potential, to develop ourselves and perfect ourselves continuously to be creative, to accomplish a personal project of life, do what's best in us.

In many human needs remain dormant fifth level, in large part frustration experienced as regards the need for lower levels or by having the inner energy spent in the struggle for meeting these needs.

The scheme Maslow pointed out a number of exceptions to the hierarchy of needs. For example, in certain people needs self esteem seem to be more important than the social needs.

In highly creative people, the impulse to create seems to be more important than any other need. This is the case of many artists.

In some people the level of aspiration seems to get stuck in a very low level. This is common in people who have suffered great privations.

In some people seem social needs does not exist. Maybe they have not found affection in the first months of his life, and therefore show no desire to give and receive affection.

In addition, account should be taken that Maslow, despite the importance it attaches to the satisfaction of needs as a condition for psychic development, recognizes that disordered satisfaction of human needs can have pathological consequences. The development of a healthy personality goes beyond the question of satisfaction of basic needs. In other words, the permittivity is pathogenic. A dose of firmness, discipline and frustration is need to make a mature person (Rodríguez Porras, 1988, p. 19th).

Maslow did an excellent analysis of human needs. The first four levels needs to retain grace. Fifth, unlike includes needs embodiment. Anyway, the point needs to values or goods, material and immaterial.

2 Motivation and values

On the other hand, self-realization does not exhaust the needs - or rather the aspirations - of the human being, as you can see in motivation theory of Victor Frankl. This famous psychiatrist saw with particular clarity, from his experience of atrocious suffering in German concentration camps, that man is a being who seeks meaning in life and that it sustains the will to meaning in existence.

The demand and the achievement of targets have a motivating effect to the extent that they are valuable. (When the look, but are not valuable, can motivate during their search, but their achievement produces disillusionment or frustration).

Frankl will last goal refers. The true goal of human existence cannot be found in what is called self-realization. This cannot be a goal in itself, for the simple reason that the more a man strive to achieve it, the more it eludes you, because only in that man undertakes in fulfilling the meaning of life, this same extent self performs. In other words, self-realization cannot be achieved when considering an end in itself, but when it happens as a side effect of transcendence itself (Frankl, 1986).

The scheme of human motivation López Pérez has many points of contact with Frankl. Pérez López distinguishes three types of motivations, which respectively called extrinsic, intrinsic and transcendent motivation. This differentiation is based on the observation that all human action takes place in an environment - for example, the organization - and that generates consequences in three dimensions.

The motives move the human being waiting for the consequences because of the action performed. In extrinsic motivation, the consequences which hopes to achieve due to the reactions of the environment; intrinsic motivation in the hopes that it produces its own action; transcendent motivation in the hopes that their action or produce in other bystanders around.

There are three motivations that lie in every human person, although in different proportions. If extrinsic motivation predominates depends on the person, in a way, the reactions of others and acts interestingly; it dominates the intrinsic, the person can decide the action with a view to their personal improvement; is dominated by the transcendent thinking person acts or opening up to others' needs or personal improvement of the recipients of its activity.

This scheme of the intentions of the motivations is very interesting because not by much, focuses on the human being feels like what the person wants. Highlights the intentions of the subject, the purpose for which it is proposed are closely related so with human will.

Through educational activities, educators can help their children or students raise the level of your subjects, giving preference to intrinsic motivation and the transcendent.

When a person moves through a transcendent motivation means that opens to the needs of others - regardless of the reaction of their environment and their own personal satisfaction - which implies greater freedom and greater quality of motivation. It opens not only the needs of others, but also to their improvement as a person.

Furthermore, we evaluate the motivation of a person for an action, considering the extent to which each of these motivations comes. In turn, it will help us discover the preferential or priority values of each person.

3 Values within the family

When the priority values are the values or material goods, as occurs in broad sectors of today, or society where values are confused with the desires or appetites of a human being, as also happens, the discovery of true human values have a large important for the motivation of the human will. Why? Because human motivation always refers to real, material and spiritual human values - where the former serve the latter and not the contrary.

The discovery of values corresponds to the immaterial, to spirit, to that reference to truth (intellectual values), the good (moral values) and beauty (aesthetic values). There are three types of values closely related to each other, because truth and beauty are inseparable terms of a trinomial. (If someone tried to separate them, one would find with a bad and ugly truth, with an ugly and false as well, with a false and bad beauty).

How to find these values? Each must take the initiative to look for them because you are very important: are the elements that improve one's being; through them, an individual may end up being come to be what it is: a person be more and better person.

But not always being sought are found. It is also true that sometimes emerge suddenly in our existential horizon, even despite our resistance (...). Any day. a routine life, and perhaps without relief, may feel shaken - and even invaded - by the discovery of a new value that transforms (Polaino and Carreño, l992)

There is some scope where the discovery of values is less difficult or more likely?

Firstly, the life within the family. If parents chose certain values and committed to them, every child that comes into the world does not have to develop a Herculean task and problematic to try to discover why values worth risking life (ibid).

It does not always happen that way. Opt for certain value is to choose among the best ones that suit, a concrete family with their current circumstances for the personal development of each member and family improvement. Logically, the most cultivated by both spouses' human values will have priority.

Commit with values and organize family life in their function supposed to have them deeply internalized. Only then will be able to put the fashion in your family being themselves, for their children, bearers of values.

These values experienced by parents. Naturally and with grace, good humor, usually knowing smile, will be attractive to children and contagious. The family, from this perspective, appears to us as a living museum of values. And not because the values parents hang on the walls, as if it were a table, passively, should admire. Family values are, on the contrary, a given irrefutable, almost testimonial nature, which goes together with the daily behavior of parents (ibid, p. 76th). And these values will also be present in the behavior of children when parents, in addition to the living and the foster, promote and maintain existing standards and some family customs that show the living presence of these preferred values.

Family values - in Christian families are not only natural values, but also supernatural values - no questions the child initially. Later yes, because, in that it grows, matures and emerges personal liberty, it is to also engage in the choices he makes and that of course are always very personal (...). Precisely, so parents have to prepare this phase reference - through their behavior - as her personal orientation (ibid).

This will be much less difficult for parents sooner do your family a living museum of values when the children are still very small.
It will be less difficult also his adolescence, when the frame of reference and a minimum of rules and customs have been an important part of your warm family environment from early childhood.

Thus, when the teen or young child prioritizes some values as a foundation to support your life, have already, as on deposit, some values than previously assumed and integrated, almost without realizing it, or borrowed infected by their parents.

These family values discovered in the coexistence of the paternal home, the daily relationships of parents and children, siblings of different ages, translate - the effect of discovery - for reasons. Consequently, the conduct of each child will be motivated from the beginning, his will be motivated.

I think, by contrast, unmotivated in many children before and during his teenage years, when the primary responsibility of the family have not proposed or unable to create this cemented the family environment in sincerity, generosity, loyalty, industriousness, in optimism, in demanding understanding, the trusted connection, the availability, gratitude, friendship and other human values.

The Purpose of Tests

What is the reason why teachers give students tests? Why do school districts and states create high stakes tests for their students? On one level, the answer to this seems fairly obvious: the reason why we give tests is to see what students have learned. However, this only tells part of the story. Tests have many purposes in our schools. One thing that should be stressed is that in the end, tests should be for the benefit of the student and not the teacher, school, district, or state. Unfortunately, this is not always the case. Following is a look at some of the major reasons why students are given assessments in and out of the classroom.

1. To Identify What Students Have Learned

The obvious point of classroom tests is to see what the students have learned after the completion of a lesson or unit. When the classroom tests are tied to effectively written lesson objectives, the teacher can analyze the results to see where the majority of the students are having problems with in their class. These tests are also important when discussing student progress at parent-teacher conferences.

2. To Identify Student Strengths and Weaknesses

Another use of tests is to determine student strengths and weaknesses. One effective example of this is when teachers use pretests at the beginning of units in order to find out what students already know and where the teacher's focus needs to be. Further, learning style and multiple intelligences tests help teachers learn how to best meet the needs of their students through instructional techniques.

3. To Provide a Method for Awards and Recognition

Tests can be used as a way to determine who will receive awards and recognition. For example, the PSAT is often given in the 10th grade to students across the nation. If a student is a National Merit Scholar due to the results on this test, they are offered scholarships and other forms of recognition.

4. To Gain College Credit

Advanced Placement exams provide students with the opportunity to earn college credit after successfully completing a course and passing the exam with high marks. While every university has its own rules on what scores to accept, most do give credit for these exams. In many cases, students are able to begin college with a semester or even a year's worth of credits under their belts.

5. To Provide a Way to Measure a Teacher and/or School's Effectiveness

More and more states are tying funding to schools to the way that students perform on standardized tests. Further some states are attempting to use these results when they evaluation and give merit raises to the teachers themselves. This use of high stakes testing is often contentious with educators since many factors can influence a student's grade on an exam. Additionally, controversy can sometimes erupt over the number of hours schools use to specifically 'teach to the test' as they prepare students to take these exams.

6. To Provide a Basis for Entry into an Internship, Program, or College

Tests have traditionally been used as a way to judge a student based on merit. The SAT and ACT are two common tests that form part of a student's entrance application to colleges. Additionally, students might be required to take additional exams to get into special programs or be placed properly in classes. For example, a student who has taken a few years of high school French might be required to pass an exam in order to be placed in the correct year of French.

What is Choice Theory?

Choice Theory is an internal control psychology that gives people information to help them understand themselves, other people and what motivates behavior. It requires learning the difference between making choices that help you connect with other people in good relationships and using external control psychology which separates you from the people you want to be connected to because genetically we are social creatures. We need each other and the cause of almost all psychological symptoms is our inability to get along with the important people in our lives. Choice Theory is the new psychology of personal freedom; a new way of looking at the world and the way you want to live.

The Glasser Approach

- Reality Therapy,
- Lead-Management, and
- Glasser Quality School Education

Choice Theory

The 1998 book, *Choice Theory: A New Psychology of Personal Freedom*, is the primary text for all that is taught by The William Glasser Institute. Choice theory states that:

- all we do is behave,
- that almost all behavior is chosen, and
- that we are driven by our genes to satisfy five basic needs: survival, love and belonging, power, freedom and fun.

In practice, the most important need is love and belonging, as closeness and connectedness with the people we care about is a requisite for satisfying all of the needs.

Choice theory, with the Seven Caring Habits, replaces external control psychology and the Seven Deadly Habits. External control, the present psychology of almost all people in the world, is destructive to relationships. When used, it will destroy the ability of one or both to find satisfaction in that relationship and will result in a disconnection from each other. Being disconnected is the source of almost all human problems such as what is called mental illness, drug addiction, violence, crime, school failure, spousal abuse, to mention a few.

Relationships and Our Habits

Seven Caring Habits	**Seven Deadly habits**
Supporting	Criticizing
Encouraging	Blaming
Listening	Complaining
Accepting	Nagging
Trusting	Threatening
Respecting	Punishing
Negotiating differences	Bribing or rewarding to control

The Ten Axioms of Choice Theory

1. The only person whose behavior we can control is our own.

2. All we can give another person is information.

3. All long-lasting psychological problems are relationship problems.

4. The problem relationship is always part of our present life.

5. What happened in the past has everything to do with what we are today, but we can only satisfy our basic needs right now and plan to continue satisfying them in the future.

6. We can only satisfy our needs by satisfying the pictures in our Quality World.

7. All we do is behave.

8. All behavior is Total Behavior and is made up of four components: acting, thinking, feeling and physiology.

9. All Total Behavior is chosen, but we only have direct control over the acting and thinking components. We can only control our feeling and physiology indirectly through how we choose to act and think.

10. All Total Behavior is designated by verbs and named by the part that is the most recognizable. Choice Theory At A Glance

Who is Glasser?

Dr. William Glasser is an American psychiatrist and the developer of the Reality Theory and Choice Theory. Born in Cleveland, Ohio in 1925, he was educated at Case Western Reserve University, where he received a B.S. and M.A. in clinical psychiatry. In 1953, he received his M. D. and completed his residency at UCLA and the Veterans Administration Hospital of Los Angeles. He received numerous awards for his outstanding work. These awards include an honorary degree from the University of San Francisco in 1990. He also received the American Counseling Association's Professional Development Award in 2003 and the ACA's "A Legend in Counseling Award" in 2004. Dr. Glasser founded The Institute for Reality Therapy in 1967, which was later renamed The Institute for Control Theory, Reality Therapy and Quality Management in 1994. The name changed again in 1996 when it was renamed The William Glasser Institute.

Dr. Glasser's ideas are considered controversial by mainstream psychiatrists. Glasser's ideas focus on personal choice, personal responsibility, and personal transformation, whereas his critics focus instead on classifying psychiatric syndromes and often prescribing psychotropic medications to treat mental disorders. Glasser is noted for applying his theories to broader social issues, including education, management, and marriage. He also advocated the consideration of mental health as a public health issue. By 1996, Glasser's body of work, known as Control Theory, was renamed Choice Theory.

The Control Theory, later named Choice Theory, states that a person's behavior is inspired by what that person wants or needs at that particular time, not an outside stimulus. Glasser states that all living creatures control their behavior to fulfill their need for satisfaction in one or more of these five areas: survival, to belong and be loved by others, to have power and importance, freedom and independence, and to have fun. Every individual has the power to change their lives for the better based on the choices they make. A person can make the proper choices and take greater responsibility for their actions by asking themselves the following questions:

- What do you want?
- What are you doing to achieve what you want?
- Is it working?
- What are your plans or options?

The Choice Theory - William Glasser

Reflective Journal Entry No. 1

1. Identify at least three indicators of consistent classroom management used by the teacher and how well was the teacher able to facilitate learning?

To provide an answer to this question would fall next to impossible if Classroom Management and Classroom Management Indicator hang undefined. Classroom management is the process of managing and controlling the classroom environment. To ensure that teachers are able to get through to students in an effective and productive manner, without distractions or disruptive behavior, they use specific techniques. Classroom Management Indicators are used to measure the success that teachers have in managing their classroom and activities (Martin, 2005).

Assuming what the source has presented comes with accuracy, classroom management indicators are somewhat like barometers made use of by the teachers to determine whether their strategy or two of keeping the students under a particular management are consistently operative or merely nominal. Overlooking the class from the backmost part of the classroom during the first day of classroom observation, it was virtually noticeable how the teacher underlined strategies to keep the students under an effective classroom management. Utter positive reinforcements were present. Frequent use of verbal reprimands was in the picture. Reward system, proper arrangement of chairs, individualized praises, oral recognition of misbehaviors and other common strategies were also observed. As you may have noticed, the list of strategies I detailed tends to come with quite of a length. But the number of strategies applied isn't really a matter.

What matters most is the efficiency and consistency of the technique being reinforced. To note, it has been said that "effective management is the key factor to a positive classroom environment" (Hue & Li, 2008). Consistency in reinforcing techniques of classroom management can be determined, I can tell, by at least three indicators. First, when students that constitute a class maximally involve themselves to work despite the variation of their interests, backgrounds, cultures and ideas, consistent classroom management is observably present. According to Oliver Clinton Moles (1990), classrooms are crowded and busy places in which group of students who vary in interests and abilities must be organized and directed in ways that maximize work involvement and minimize disruptions. Second, when misbehaving students of a class tend to conform their actions more often to rules and instructions set by the teacher and thus no longer misbehaving, consistent classroom management is keenly used. As any

experienced teacher would say, one common fruit of effective management is the shift of students' behavior. Third and last, when the entirety of classroom atmosphere seems to no longer need further management from the teacher, consistent classroom management is obviously present. Classroom management is basically a necessary conditioning practice done to keep the students oderated, properly propped and enabled to effectively learn. So simple logic will say when one classroom management exercise has truly been consistent and effective, all the moderation, proper propping and enabling no longer have to be done repeatedly.

2. What constitute a conducive learning physical learning environment? How can a teacher come up with a physical environment that is supportive of learning?

3. Why is establishing routines considered an effective practice in classroom management?

4. What routines can be established for an efficient and effective teaching-learning process?

5. To what extent does knowledge on the stages of development help the teacher in managing the class to have an effective teaching-learning?

Implementation
Secondary (Middle and High School)

Implementation of choice theory into secondary education would basically allow students the freedom of choice. Educators would only be supportive entities only to help the students make a better choice. Reaffirming that one can only control oneself would be the focus of teachers in this particular environment. Educators and students will recognize everyone's basic needs and the necessity in fulfilling those needs in an environment that fosters caring and respect for all. Ensuring the students attain self-awareness and esteem to make better choices for themselves develops as a secondary goal. The primary goal of an educator is to prepare students for the "real world". Real world skills that are needed are interpersonal skills and group problem solving. Secondary education would emphasize not blatant memorization but more on critical thinking skills and a problem-based learning. As in the real world, students are encouraged to seek help and help one another as necessary. Students will use all resources available, including parents, each other, texts, to demonstrate understanding. The grading system is based on competence and credit will be given only if competence is demonstrated (B). Student with an understanding above the competence level along with willingness to help others would earn an exemplary grade (A).

A Fundamental Attitude Shift

All we want to change. All realize we need to change in some fields. But making changes is often more complicated than we imagine.

Inform others, read everything that relates to the change. Attend lectures, take courses.

Have to do everything except the page. Pray, promise, try one way and another, are always active. It seems they are getting. But using diversionary tactics. Do everything but what they need to do. Live balancing in a thousand attempts to move without breaking the old structure. Stretch the rope until nearly burst, but always come back to time when they are about to take a stronger step towards the new.

People are acrobats. With one hand the new approach, try new activities, while the other clings to the known, the existing situations. Advance and retreat simultaneously. Live moments of joy to realize that advance and extreme frustration to see that coming back to the same place. Carry an unbearable inner tension, because they sense the joy of change without being able to enjoy it.

Are people, for example, that no longer support an affective relationship and know someone with which to understand much better that are fully realized, but cannot break with the previous situation. Are divided, can lead parallel lives for years. Intellectually have made clear that the new situation is much higher, but remain trapped by invisible webs to the past; feel fear in taking a new step, to show their failure, risking the long term. That happens a lot when there is a family with children and the partner is also dependent. Children and companion can do everything to arrest the person who wants to change; unite in a tenacious effort to halt any attempt to change, seek the weaknesses of the other: "I cannot live without you"; "worth again", "the children will suffer" "the new situation can be an illusion, then everything is equal, then, why risk it?"
.
One feels literally suffocated, trapped in a web which cannot get loose. The home life becomes tenser, joyless. The coexistence becomes increasingly formal, superficial. There is no real intimacy or joy of being together.

Unconsciously there is a rage with the partner and against himself, by impotence, which becomes continuous pinpricks, ironies, small revenges on automatic routine gestures, tasks, rituals increasingly pointless indifference.
The true attitude change
It is important to see if we really want change. Look calmly, objectively for how we act.

First, want to renew the desire to change. Then go on changing as we can, at our pace, our way, attentive and at the same time accepting limits, difficulties that arise, not denying. Even when we retreat, we will accept this difficulty, recognize it, relying on the same indecision.

The change can not mean only suffering but also hope, trust. There is suffering, no doubt. It's like when we need to remove a band-aid of our skin. The larger the wound, the more carefully withdraw; we dampening material and the skin until it pulls away and release. Some prefer to start once the bandage. There are times when it is possible, in other can aggravate the wound, if it is not healed.

We can gently try our changes. The emotional support is crucial not to lose heart. And always go resuming our process of change, as we do a slow siege to the walls that defend ourselves. Find loopholes to introduce ourselves, make small gestures of change, and evaluate various strategies of advancement.

Little by little changes will have the courage to reach broader changes. Not worth focusing only long term but go conquering small spaces of freedom, achievement, progress possible at this time. And then look settles them, recognize them, value them, incorporate them as far as we possibly can.

Milestone Cases in Supreme Court History

1803

Mercury* v. *Madison was the first instance in which a law passed by Congress was declared unconstitutional. The decision greatly expanded the power of the Court by establishing its right to overturn acts of Congress, a power not explicitly granted by the Constitution. Initially the case involved Secretary of State James Madison (http://www.infoplease.com/cgi-bin/id/A0760589) , who refused to seat four judicial appointees although they had been confirmed by the Senate.

1819

McCulloch* v. *Maryland upheld the right of Congress to create a Bank of the United States, ruling that it was a power implied but not enumerated by the Constitution. The case is significant because it advanced the doctrine of implied powers, or a loose construction of the Constitution. The Court, Chief Justice John Marshall (http://www.infoplease.com/cgi-bin/id/A0831958) wrote, would sanction laws reflecting "the letter and spirit" of the Constitution.

1824

Gibbons* v. *Ogden defined broadly Congress's right to regulate commerce. Aaron Ogden had filed suit in New York against Thomas Gibbons for operating a rival steamboat service between New York and New Jersey ports. Ogden had exclusive rights to operate steamboats in New York under a state law, while Gibbons held a federal license. Gibbons lost the case and appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court, which reversed the decision. The Court held that the New York law was unconstitutional, since the power to regulate interstate commerce, which extended to the regulation of navigation, belonged exclusively to Congress. In the 20th century, Chief Justice John Marshall's broad definition of commerce was used to uphold civil rights.

1857

Dred Scott* v. *Sandford was a highly controversial case that intensified the national debate over slavery. The case involved Dred Scott, a slave, who was taken from a slave state to a free territory. Scott filed a lawsuit claiming that because he had lived on free soil he was entitled to his freedom. Chief Justice Roger B. Taney (http://www.infoplease.com/cgi-bin/id/A0847779) disagreed, ruling that blacks were not citizens and therefore could not sue in federal court. Taney further inflamed antislavery forces by declaring that Congress had no right to ban slavery from U.S. territories.

1896

Plessy* v. *Ferguson was the infamous case that asserted that "equal but separate accommodations" for blacks on railroad cars did not violate the "equal protection under the laws" clause of the 14th Amendment. By defending the constitutionality of racial segregation, the Court paved the way for the repressive Jim Crow laws of the South. The

lone dissenter on the Court, Justice John Marshall Harlan, protested, "The thin disguise of 'equal' accommodations…will not mislead anyone."

1954

Brown* v. *Board of Education of Topeka invalidated racial segregation in schools and led to the unraveling of de jure segregation in all areas of public life. In the unanimous decision spearheaded by Chief Justice Earl Warren the Court invalidated, the Plessy ruling, declaring "in the field of public education, the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place" and contending that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal." Future Supreme Court justice Thurgood Marshall (http://www.infoplease.com/cgi-bin/id/A0831961) was one of the NAACP lawyers who successfully argued the case.

1963

Gideon* v. *Wainwright guaranteed a defendant's right to legal counsel. The Supreme Court overturned the Florida felony conviction of Clarence Earl Gideon, who had defended himself after having been denied a request for free counsel. The Court held that the state's failure to provide counsel for a defendant charged with a felony violated the Fourteenth Amendment's due process clause. Gideon was given another trial, and with a court-appointed lawyer defending him, he was acquitted.

1964

New York Times* v. *Sullivan extended the protection offered the press by the First Amendment. L.B. Sullivan, a police commissioner in Montgomery, Ala., had filed a libel suit against the *New York Times* for publishing inaccurate information about certain actions taken by the Montgomery police department. In overturning a lower court's decision, the Supreme Court held that debate on public issues would be inhibited if public officials could sue for inaccuracies that were made by mistake. The ruling made it more difficult for public officials to bring libel charges against the press, since the official had to prove that a harmful untruth was told maliciously and with reckless disregard for truth.

1965

Griswold* v. *Connecticut said that Connecticut's ban on the use of contraceptives violated a couple's "right to marital privacy," and that the right to privacy for couples is a fundamental right.

1966

Miranda* v. *Arizona was another case that helped define the due process clause of the 14th Amendment. At the center of the case was Ernesto Miranda, who had confessed to a crime during police questioning without knowing he had a right to have an attorney present. Based on his confession, Miranda was convicted. The Supreme Court overturned the conviction, ruling that criminal suspects must be warned of their rights before they are questioned by police. These rights are: the right to remain silent, to have an attorney present, and, if the suspect cannot afford an attorney, to have one appointed by the state. The police must also warn suspects that any statements they make can be used against them in court. Miranda was retried without the confession and convicted.

1973

Roe* v. *Wade legalized abortion and is at the center of the current controversy between "pro-life" and "pro-choice" advocates. The Court ruled that a woman has the right to an abortion without interference from the government in the first trimester of pregnancy, contending that it is part of her "right to privacy." The Court maintained that right to privacy is not absolute, however, and granted states the right to intervene in the second and third trimesters of pregnancy.

1976

Buckley* v. *Valeo

Sen. James Buckley (R-NY) and others challenged a number of the 1974 amendments to Federal Election Campaign Act, saying the spending and contribution limits on political campaigns violated free speech rights. In a per curiam decision, the Supreme Court upheld the limits on contributions from individuals, disclosure rules, and the public financing of campaigns, saying they maintain the integrity of elections and prevent corruption. However, the Court struck down spending limits imposed on candidates and inviduals or groups. "It is clear that a primary effect of these expenditure limitations is to restrict the quantity of campaign speech by individuals, groups and candidates," the Court said. "So long as persons or groups eschew expenditures that in express terms advocate the election or defeat of a clearly defined candidate, they are free to spend as much as they want to promote the candidate and his views." The ruling opened the floodgates to issue ads that clearly endorse—or attack—a candidate but refrain from using terms such as "vote for," "defeat," or "elect."

1978

Regents of the University of California* v. *Bakke imposed limitations on affirmative action to ensure that providing greater opportunities for minorities did not come at the expense of the rights of the majority. In other words, affirmative action was unfair if it lead to reverse discrimination. The case involved the University of Calif., Davis, Medical School and Allan Bakke, a white applicant who was rejected twice even though there were minority applicants admitted with significantly lower scores than his. A closely divided Court ruled that while race was a legitimate factor in school admissions, the use of rigid quotas was not permissible.

2000

Bush* v. *Gore the Court reversed the Florida Supreme Court decision ordering manual recount of presidential election ballots. A majority of justices (7–2) agreed that the recount violated the Constitution's equal protection and due process guarantees, since counting standards varied among counties. The Court remanded the case to the Florida Supreme Court for remedy but, in 5-4 split, maintained that deadline for recount ended at midnight. The decision effectively ended the presidential election, handing a victory to George W. Bush.

2003

Grutter* v. *Bollinger upheld the University of Michigan Law School's consideration of race and ethnicity in admissions. In her majority opinion, Justice O'Connor said that the law school used a "highly individualized, holistic review of each applicant's file." Race, she said, was not used in a "mechanical way." Therefore, the university's program was consistent with the requirement of "individualized consideration" set in 1978's *Bakke* case. "In order to cultivate a set of leaders with legitimacy in the eyes of the citizenry, it is necessary that the path to leadership be visibly open to talented and qualified individuals of every race and ethnicity," O'Connor said. However, the court ruled that the University of Michigan's undergraduate admissions system, which awarded 20 points to black, Hispanic, and American-Indian applicants, was "nonindividualized, mechanical," and thus unconstitutional.

2006

In ***Ayotte* v. *Planned Parenthood of Northern New England,*** a challenge to a New Hampshire law that prohibits doctors from performing an abortion on a minor until 48 hours after a parent has been notified is heard. The Supreme Court rules that the government cannot restrict abortions when one is required during a medical emergency.

2007

In ***Gonzales* v. *Carhart,*** the court no longer requires that the regulation of abortion by government must protect the mother's health.

2010

In ***Citizens United* v. *Federal Election Commission,*** the Supreme Court ruled, 5–4, that the government cannot restrict the spending of corporations for political campaigns, maintaining that it's their First Amendment right to support candidates as they choose. This decision upsets two previous precedents on the free-speech rights of corporations. President Obama expressed disapproval of the decision, calling it a "victory" for Wall Street and Big Business.

2012

In ***National Federation of Independent Business* v. *Kathleen Sebelius, Secretary of Health and Human Services,*** one of the most anticipated rulings in recent history, the Supreme Court upheld most of President Barack Obama's healthcare law—the signature legislation of his first term, including the individual mandate, which requires that most Americans buy health insurance or pay a fee. The individual mandate was the centerpiece of the law. The court ruled, 5–4, that the individual mandate is constitutional under Congress's taxing authority. "Because the Constitution permits such a tax, it is not our role to forbid it, or to pass upon its wisdom or fairness," Chief Justice John Roberts wrote in the majority decision. The Court also upheld the expansion of Medicaid, the government's health insurance program for low-income Americans, but limited the provision, saying states will not necessarily lose their funding if they choose not to expand the program. The ruling was considered a major victory for Obama in an election year.

2013

In ***Shelby County* v. *Holder***, the Supreme Court struck down Section 4 of the Voting Rights Act, which established a formula for Congress to use when determining if a state or voting jurisdiction requires prior approval before changing its voting laws. Currently under Section 5 of the act nine—mostly Southern—states with a history of discrimination must get clearance from Congress before changing voting rules to make sure racial minorities are not negatively affected. While the 5–4 decision did not invalidate Section 5, it made it toothless. Chief Justice John Roberts said the formula Congress now uses, which was written in 1965, has become outdated. "While any racial discrimination in voting is too much, Congress must ensure that the legislation it passes to remedy that problem speaks to current conditions," he said in the majority opinion. In a strongly worded dissent, Judge Ruth Bader Ginsburg said, "Hubris is a fit word for today's demolition of the V.R.A." (Voting Rights Act).

In ***United States* v. *Windsor***, the Supreme Court ruled that the 1996 Defense of Marriage Act (DOMA) was unconstitutional. In a 5 to 4 vote, the court ruled that DOMA violated the rights of gays and lesbians. The court also ruled that the law interferes with the states' rights to define marriage. It was the first case ever on the issue of gay marriage for the Supreme Court. Chief Justice John G. Roberts, Jr. voted against striking it down as did Antonin Scalia, Samuel Alito and Clarence Thomas . However, conservative-leaning Justice Anthony M. Kennedy voted with his liberal colleagues to overturn DOMA.

In ***Hollingsworth* v. *Perry***, the Supreme Court ruled that same-sex marriage opponents in California did not have standing to appeal the lower court ruling that overturned the state's ban, known as Proposition 8. The ruling would most likely remove legal battles for same-sex couples wishing to marry in California. However, the ruling did not directly affect other states.

2014

Taking on the complexities of life in a digital age in the case ***Riley* v. *California***, the Supreme Court decided unanimously that police need a warrant to search a suspect's cellphone in a unanimous decision. Chief Justice John Roberts wrote: "Modern cell phones, as a category, implicate privacy concerns far beyond those implicated by the search of a cigarette pack, a wallet, or a purse."

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1954)

Historical Background

Perhaps no other case decided by the Court in the 20th century has had so profound an effect on the social fabric of America as *Brown* v. *Board of Education of Topeka*. By the end of World War II, dramatic changes in American race relations were already underway. The integration of labor unions in the 1930s under the eye of the Fair Employment Practices Commission and the desegregation of the armed forces by President Truman in 1948 marked major steps toward racial integration.

The legal framework on which segregation rested—formally established in 1896 by the Court's *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* decision—was itself being dismantled. Challenged repeatedly by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), the doctrine of "separate but equal" was beginning to crack. Beginning in 1938, the Supreme Court had, in a number of cases, struck down laws where segregated facilities proved to be "demonstrably unequal." The Court ordered the law schools at the University of Missouri and the University of Texas to be integrated in *Missouri ex rel. Gaines* v. *Canada*, 1938, and *Sweatt* v. *Painter*, 1950. Neither case had made the frontal assault needed to overturn the Plessy standard. However, the 1950s brought a new wave of challenges to official segregation by the NAACP and other groups.

Circumstances of the Case

Linda Brown, an eight-year-old African-American girl, had been denied permission to attend an elementary school only five blocks from her home in Topeka, Kansas. School officials refused to register her at the nearby school, assigning her instead to a school for nonwhite students some 21 blocks from her home. Separate elementary schools for whites and nonwhites were maintained by the Board of Education in Topeka. Linda Brown's parents filed a lawsuit to force the schools to admit her to the nearby, but segregated, school for white students.

Constitutional Issues

The central question addressed to the Court involved the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment. "Does segregation of children in public schools solely on the basis of race, even though the physical facilities and other 'tangible' factors may be equal, deprive the children…of equal educational opportunities?" In short, the Court was asked to determine whether the segregation of schools was at all constitutional.

Argument

For Linda Brown: Led by Thurgood Marshall, an NAACP litigator who would be appointed to the Court in 1967, Brown's attorneys argued that the operation of separate schools, based on race, was harmful to African-American children. Extensive testimony was provided to support the contention that legal segregation resulted in both fundamentally unequal education and low

self-esteem among minority students. The Brown family lawyers argued that segregation by law implied that African Americans were inherently inferior to whites. For these reasons they asked the Court to strike down segregation under the law.

For the Board of Education: Attorneys for Topeka argued that the separate schools for nonwhites in Topeka were equal in every way, and were in complete conformity with the *Plessy* standard. Buildings, the courses of study offered, and the quality of teachers were completely comparable. In fact, because some federal funds for Native Americans only applied at the nonwhite schools, some programs for minority children were actually better than those offered at the schools for whites. They pointed to the *Plessy* decision of 1896 to support segregation and argued that they had in good faith created "equal facilities," even though races were segregated. Furthermore, they argued, discrimination by race did not harm children.

Decision and Rationale

For a unanimous Court (9-0), Chief Justice Warren wrote in his first and probably most significant decision, "[S]egregation [in public education] is a denial of the equal protection of the laws." Accepting the arguments put forward by the plaintiffs, Warren declared: "To separate [some children] from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone."

The Court quoted the Kansas court, which had held that "Segregation of white and colored children in public schools has a detrimental effect upon the colored children. The impact is greater when it has the sanction of the law; for the policy of separating the races is usually interpreted as denoting the inferiority of the negro group. A sense of inferiority affects the motivation of a child to learn. Segregation with the sanction of law, therefore, has a tendency to [retard] the educational and mental development of negro children and to deprive them of some of the benefits they would receive in a racial[ly] integrated school…."

Summing up, Warren wrote: "We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal…. segregation [in public education] is a denial of the equal protection of the laws."

The *Brown* decision did more than reverse the *Plessy* doctrine of "separate but equal." It reversed centuries of segregationist practice and thought in America. For that reason, the *Brown* decision is seen as a transforming event—the birth of a political and social revolution. In a later case called *Brown II* (Warren had suggested two decisions—the first dealing with the constitutionality of segregation and the second with the implementation of the decision), the Court directed an end to school segregation by race "with all deliberate speed." The *Brown* decision became the cornerstone of the social justice movement of the 1950s and 1960s. It finally brought the spirit of the 14th Amendment into practice, more than three-quarters of a century after that amendment had been passed.

Ten Important Supreme Court Decisions in Black History

From Dred Scott to Affirmative Action

Dred Scott v. *Sandford* (1857)
Decreed a slave was his master's property and African Americans were not citizens; struck down the Missouri Compromise as unconstitutional.

Civil Rights Cases (1883)
A number of cases are addressed under this Supreme court decision. Decided that the Civil Rights Act of 1875 (the last federal civil rights legislation until the Civil Rights Act of 1957) was unconstitutional. Allowed private sector segregation.

Plessy v. *Ferguson* (1896)
The Court stated that segregation was legal and constitutional as long as "facilities were equal"—the famous "separate but equal" segregation policy.

Powell v. *Alabama* (1932)
The Supreme Court overturned the "Scottsboro Boys'" convictions and guaranteed counsel in state and federal courts.

Shelley v. *Kraemer* (1948)
The justices ruled that a court may not constitutionally enforce a "restrictive covenant" which prevents people of certain race from owning or occupying property.

Brown v. *Board of Education of Topeka* (1954)
Reversed *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* "separate but equal" ruling. "[S]egregation [in public education] is a denial of the equal protection of the laws."

Heart of Atlanta Motel, Inc. v. *United States* (1964)
This case challenged the constitutionality of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The court ruled that the motel had no right "to select its guests as it sees fit, free from governmental regulation."
Loving v. *Virginia* (1967)

This decision ruled that the prohibition on interracial marriage was unconstitutional. Sixteen states that still banned interracial marriage at the time were forced to revise their laws.
Regents of the University of California v. *Bakke* (1978)

The decision stated that affirmative action was unfair if it lead to reverse discrimination.

Grutter v. *Bollinger* (2003)
The decision upheld affirmative action's constitutionality in education, as long it employed a "highly individualized, holistic review of each applicant's file" and did not consider race as a factor in a "mechanical way."

Summary of Lau v. Nichols
1974

In 1971 the San Francisco, California school system was integrated as a result of a federal court decree. Approximately 2,800 Chinese ancestry students in the school system did not speak English. One thousand of these students received supplemental courses in English language, and 1,800 did not receive such instruction. A class action suit was brought by the non-English-speaking Chinese students who did not receive additional instruction against officials responsible for the operation of the San Francisco Unified School District. The students alleged that they were not provided with equal educational opportunities and, therefore, were not being afforded their Fourteenth Amendment rights.

The District Court denied relief, and the Court of Appeals affirmed the decision.

The basis of the Court of Appeals decision was that every student brings to his or her educational career different advantages and disadvantages based on social, economic, and cultural background, which are factors created separately from the school system.

A petition for certiorari was filed, and the United States Supreme Court granted the petition due to the public importance of the issue. The Supreme Court found that the California Education Code required that the English language was the basic language of instruction in all schools, and that it was a policy of the state to ensure the mastery of English by all students in the schools. In addition, the Code required compulsory, full-time education for children between the ages of six and sixteen and required that no student who had not met the standards of proficiency in English would be allowed to graduate in twelfth grade and receive a diploma. In the opinion of the Supreme Court, these state imposed standards did not provide for equality of treatment simply because all students were provided with equal facilities, books, teachers, and curriculum.

The Supreme Court did not validate the Equal Protection Clause argument of petitioners, but relied on Section 601 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination based on race, color, or national origin in any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. The San Francisco Unified School District received substantial federal financial assistance, and based on guidelines imposed upon recipients of such funding, school systems must assure that students of a particular race, color, or national origin are not denied the same opportunities to obtain an education generally obtained by other students in the same school system. This guideline was further expanded in 1970 to include that students with language deficiencies were to be afforded the tools necessary to rectify the deficiency.

Based on its findings, the Supreme Court reversed the judgment of the Court of Appeals and remanded the case for appropriate relief to be granted.

Lau v. Nichols
(excerpts)
414 U.S. 563 (1974)

When children arrive in school with little or no English-speaking ability, "sink or swim" instruction is a violation of their civil rights, according to the U.S. Supreme Court in this 1974 decision. ***Lau*** remains the major precedent regarding the educational rights of language minorities, although it is grounded in statute (Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964), rather than in the U.S. Constitution. At issue was whether school administrators may meet their obligation to provide equal educational opportunities merely by treating all students the same, or whether they must offer special help for students unable to understand English. Lower federal courts had absolved the San Francisco school district of any responsibility for minority children's "language deficiency." But a unanimous Supreme Court disagreed. Its ruling opened a new era in federal civil rights enforcement under the so-called "Lau Remedies." The decision was delivered by Justice William O. Douglas on January 21, 1974.

This class suit brought by non-English-speaking Chinese students against officials responsible for the operation of the San Francisco Unified School District seeks relief against the unequal educational opportunities which are alleged to violate, *inter alia,* the Fourteenth Amendment. No specific remedy is urged upon us. Teaching English to the students of Chinese ancestry who do not speak the language is one choice. Giving instructions to this group in Chinese is another. There may be others. Petitioner asks only that the Board of Education be directed to apply its expertise to the problem and rectify the situation. ...

The Court of Appeals reasoned that "every student brings to the starting line of his educational career different advantages and disadvantages caused in part by social, economic and cultural background, created and continued completely apart from any contribution by the school system"; 83 F.2d 497. Yet in our view the case may not be so easily decided. This is a public school system of California and § 71 of the California Education Code states that "English shall be the basic language of instruction in all schools." That section permits a school district to determine "when and under what circumstances instruction may be given bilingually." That section also states as "the policy of the state" to insure "the mastery of English by all pupils in the schools." And bilingual instruction is authorized "to the extent that it does not interfere with the systematic, sequential, and regular instruction of all pupils in the English language."

Moreover, § 8573 of the Education Code provides that no pupil shall receive a diploma of graduation from grade 12 who has not met the standards of proficiency in "English," as well as other prescribed subjects. Moreover, by § 12101 of the Education Code (Supp. 1973) children between the ages of six and 16 years are (with exceptions not material here) "subject to compulsory full-time education."

Under these state-imposed standards there is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education. Basic English skills are at the very core of what these public schools teach. Imposition of a requirement that, before a child can effectively participate in the educational program, he must already have acquired those basic skills is to make a mockery of public education. We know that those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful.

We do not reach the Equal Protection Clause argument which has been advanced but rely solely on § 601 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to reverse the Court of Appeals. That section bans discrimination based "on the ground of race, color, or national origin," in "any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance." The school district involved in this litigation receives large amounts of federal financial assistance. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (H.E.W.), which has authority to promulgate regulations prohibiting discrimination in federally assisted school systems, in 1968 issued one guideline that "[s]chool systems are responsible for assuring that students of a particular race, color, or national origin are not denied the opportunity to obtain the education generally obtained by other students in the system." In 1970 H.E.W. made the guidelines more specific, requiring school districts that were federally funded "to rectify the language deficiency in order to open" the instruction to students who had "linguistic deficiencies."

It seems obvious that the Chinese-speaking minority receive fewer benefits than the English-speaking majority from respondents' school system, which denies them a meaningful opportunity to participate in the educational program – all earmarks of the discrimination banned by the Regulations. In 1970 H.E.W. issued clarifying guidelines which include the following:

> Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students.
>
> Any ability grouping or tracking system employed by the school system to deal with the special language skill needs of national origin-minority group children must be designed to meet such language skill needs as soon as possible and must not operate as an educational dead end or permanent track.
>
> Respondent school district contractually agreed to "comply with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 ... and all requirements imposed by or pursuant to the Regulation" of

> H.E.W. which are "issued pursuant to that title ..." and also immediately to "take any measures necessary to effectuate this agreement." The Federal Government has power to fix the terms on which its money allotments to the States shall be disbursed. Whatever the limits of that power, they have not been reached here. Senator Humphrey, during the floor debates on the Civil Rights Act of 1964, said:
>
> Simple justice requires that public funds, to which all taxpayers of all races contribute, not be spent in any fashion which encourages, entrenches, subsidizes, or results in racial discrimination.

We accordingly reverse the judgment of the Court of Appeals and remand the case for the fashioning of appropriate relief. ...

While concurring in the decision, Justice Harry Blackmun (joined by Chief Justice Warren Burger) added a caveat that could prove significant as school districts are confronted with increasingly diverse student populations.

Against the possibility that the Court's judgment may be interpreted too broadly, I stress the fact that the children with whom we are concerned here number about 1,800. This is a very substantial group that is being deprived of any meaningful schooling because the children cannot understand the language of the classroom. We may only guess as to why they have had no exposure to English in their preschool years. Earlier generations of American ethnic groups have overcome the language barrier by earnest parental endeavor or by the hard fact of being pushed out of the family or community nest and into the realities of broader experience.

I merely wish to make plain that when, in another case, we are confronted with a very few youngsters, or with just a single child who speaks only German or Polish or Spanish or any language other than English, I would not regard today's decision ... as conclusive upon the issue whether the statute and the guidelines require the funded school district to provide special instruction. For me, numbers are at the heart of this case and my concurrence is to be understood accordingly.

The Social Reproduction of Inequality

Conflict theorists argue that the democratic mission of education has failed because it has reproduced social and economic inequalities.

LEARNING OBJECTIVE
Explain, using conflict theory, how inequality is socially reproduced

KEY POINTS
In democratic societies, education is meant to be a path to opportunity, and public education is meant to ensure society continues to strive for equality.

Persistent evidence indicates that education's democratic mission has failed; rather than overcoming inequality, the educational system appears to reinforce it.
Inequality is continually socially reproduced because the whole education system serves the interests of the dominant classes.

According to conflict theorists, the myth of individual success through education obscures an important social fact: the individual failures of many students are in fact explained by large-scale social forces.
Conflict theorists maintain that schools are a means to convey to students what constitutes knowledge and appropriate behavior as determined by the state—those in power.

According to conflict theorists, children from lower-class backgrounds face a much tougher time in school; they must learn the standard curriculum as well as the hidden curriculum of middle class values.

TERMS
Social Reproduction Of Inequality
The idea that inequality is continually socially reproduced because the whole education system is overlain with ideology provided by the dominant group.

Lower-Class Backgrounds
Upbringings that are lower on the socioeconomic hierarchy.

EXAMPLES
Working class students may begin to understand that they are in a double-bind: either they must strive to succeed, and in doing so abandon their own culture in order to absorb the school's middle class values, or they will fail to climb the social ladder.
In democratic societies, education is meant to be a path to opportunity, and public education is

meant to ensure society continues to strive for equality. Students who work hard in school should be able to land good jobs and advance themselves, climbing the latter to social and economic success. Yet persistent evidence indicates that education's democratic mission has failed; rather than overcoming inequality, the educational system appears to reinforce it. According to conflict theorists, this is a predictable result of capitalism and other forces of domination and inequality.

Social Reproduction of Inequality

Conflict theorists believe that educational institutions operate as mechanisms for the social reproduction of inequality. Inequality is continually socially reproduced because the whole education system is overlain with a dominant group's ideology. The premise that education fosters equal opportunity is regarded as a myth, perpetuated to serve the interests of the dominant classes. According to this myth, those who fail to achieve success have only themselves to blame. According to conflict theorists, this myth obscures an important social fact—the individual failures of many students can be explained by large-scale social forces.

Conflict theorists argue that schools, like society in general, are based on exploitation, oppression, domination, and subordination. From teaching style to the formal curriculum, schools are a means to convey what constitutes knowledge and appropriate behavior as determined by the state—those in power. Thus, students must learn not only basic skills such as reading, writing, and math, but also skills useful in a capitalist economy and behaviors appropriate to the work environment, especially docility and obedience to a manager or boss—the teacher.

Class and Education

Some students may realize the perverse but unacknowledged goals of education, as they begin to see that much of what they learn seems, from their perspective, pointless. Anti-school values displayed by these children are often derived from their consciousness of their real interests. For example, working class students may begin to understand that they are in a double-bind: either they must strive to succeed, or in doing so abandon their own culture in order to absorb the school's middle class values, or they will fail. Children from lower-class backgrounds face a much tougher time in school, where they must learn the standard curriculum as well as the hidden curriculum of middle class values. For those who aim to succeed and advance, they must confront the material inequalities created by unequal funding arrangements.

On the other hand, for middle and especially upper-class children, maintaining their superior position in society requires little effort. These students have the benefit of learning middle class values at home, meaning they come to school already having internalized the hidden curriculum. They also have access to higher quality instruction. In this way, the continuation of privilege and wealth for the elite is made possible.

The Sociology of C. Wright Mills

Before exploring the sociology of C. Wright Mills, there are two points about his sociology that I wish to briefly note. First, he is one of the few sociologists in the 20th century to write within the classical tradition of sociology. By this I mean that Mills attempts interpretive analysis of the total sociocultural systems, attempting to base this analysis on an overall worldview and empirical evidence. In addition, he writes about issues and problems that matter to people, not just to other sociologists, and he writes about them in a way to further our understanding.

From a neo-classical theoretical perspective, Mills writes about the growth of white-collar jobs, and how these jobs determine the values and perceptions of the people who hold them, and how the growth of these jobs affect other sectors of society. He writes about the growth in the size and scope of bureaucratic power in industrial society, how this concentration of authority affects those who hold it and those who are subject to it, and how this growth affects traditional democratic institutions.

He writes about the Cold War and what is at stake in the conflict. He writes about the meaning of communist revolutions around the world. He writes explicitly about the ideology and material interests of elites, and the rise of militarism and military solutions. Mills writes (albeit, almost in passing) about the coming automation of office work, and the impact this automation will have on workers and institutions. Mills writes on the role of ideology and material interest in the new science of management, concluding that this new science is just an elaborate manipulation of workers. Most forcefully, he writes about the proper role of social science in exploring and clarifying these and other central issues of our time, for all people.

While the secondary literature on Mills often remarks on the influence of Marx and Veblen on his sociology--and these two theorists certainly have an influence--the main influence upon his overall world view is very much Max Weber. In all of his writings Mills interprets the world through a coherent theoretical perspective. He uses this theory to explain social structures and processes, rather than obscuring them (either intentionally or inadvertently) through data and jargon. Like the classical theory of the discipline, Mills' vision is a holistic view of entire sociocultural systems, this system is interdependent, and it has profound effects on human values, thought, and behavior. Consequently, his writing remain quite relevant and useful today in our efforts to understand social reality—in our efforts to understand what is going on "out there."

The second point about the sociology of C. Wright Mills that I wish to note is that, aside from being a sociological genius, Mills is also a very gifted writer (two traits that are almost mutually exclusive). He truly has a gift for frank and forthright expression). This was particularly true in his "later" years as he took to writing social criticism rather than straight academic prose, with

little of the cant and caveat of the modern social scientist. White Collar, despite some lapses, is Mills at his most sociological. Beginning with The Power Elite, Mills becomes far more polemical and far more critical in his language).

Even in his writings as a social critic, however, Mills was always consistent with his overall theory of sociocultural systems and his vision of the role of social science within that system. Writing as a social critic, Mills stirred great controversy among the social scientists of his day. Most modern day treatments of Mills continue to focus on this social criticism. To date, there have been few attempts to summarize his theory in a single comprehensive statement. This work will focus on the vision that informs his critique, the sociological theory behind C. Wright Mills.

As a student of Max Weber, C. Wright Mills' main body of work centers upon the theme of rationalization. Rationalization is the practical application of knowledge to achieve a desired end. Its goal is efficiency, its means are total coordination and control over the social processes needed to attain that goal. It is the guiding principle behind bureaucracy and the increasing division of labor.

For example, White Collar, can be viewed as an elaboration and update on Weber's bureaucratization process, detailing the effects of the increasing division of labor on the tone and character of American social life. The Power Elite is an exploration of rational-legal bureaucratic authority and its effects on the wielders and subjects of this power. Consistent with the "iron law of oligarchy," Mills details the enlargement and centralization of public and private bureaucracies, and how their emergence affects the democratic process. The Causes of World War III can be read as an jeremiad on Weber's ideas on the irrationality of many bureaucratic organizations, or as Mills calls it, the disjunction between institutional rationality and human reason (or sometimes simply "crackpot realism"). Finally, The Sociological Imagination is an elaboration of the rationalization of social life and a plea for social scientists and intellectuals to identify and organize resistance to that trend. We will begin exploring this overarching theme of rationalization with a quick summation of some basic assumptions Mills has about the nature of man and society.

Assumptions

Mills begins with the assumption that "human nature" is formed by the interaction of historical and social structure (1959, p. 13). Sociocultural systems, in particular the modern nation-state, determine the type of men and women who inhabit the system. Human beings, Mills asserts, cannot be understood apart from the social and historical structures in which they are formed and in which they interact (1959, p. 162). The nation-state has become the "history-making unit" in the modern world, the "man-making unit"(1959, p. 158). Through the socialization process, aspects of human character are liberated or repressed. As the history-making unit the nation-

state selects and forms the character of human beings, it opens up possibilities and imposes limits on the variety of men and women who make up the society.

The struggle between countries or blocs of countries—such as the struggles between fascism and democracy, or between capitalism and communism—is more than a struggle between which political or economic system will prevail, it is a struggle over which types of human beings will prevail (1959, p. 158). Historical transformations within societies, say the decline of agriculture and the rise of small business, also affect the predominant character of human beings, their values and ideologies, their beliefs and expectations, their very character. Again, men and women can only be understood in the context of the historical sociocultural system in which they live and interact.

While human beings are motivated by the norms, values, and belief systems that prevail in their society, structural change often throw these "vocabularies of motivation" into some confusion (1959, p. 162). The number and variety of structural changes within a society increase as institutions become larger, more embracing, and more interconnected (1959, pp. 20-21). As structural institutions become enlarged and centralized the circle of those who control these organizations also becomes narrowed—the "iron law of oligarchy" prevails (1956, p. 21). Consequently, the tempo of change has sped up appreciably in the modern era, and the changes have become far more consequential for all—for those who are in control of these enlarged organizations, and for those who are subject to them.

Bureaucracy

According to Mills, the rise of white-collar work is rooted in occupational change due to 1) recent growth in bureaucracies; 2) technological change; and 3) the increasing need to market the goods of industrial society. In this section we will examine Mills' analysis of the effects of growing bureaucratization and technological change on the character of white collar life. In the section on "Mass Society," we will examine Mills' analysis of the long-range and pervasive impact of marketing on human behavior.

Through the expansion of production as well as merger, corporations become larger and many former "free entrepreneurs" become mere employees. In the growth of these large bureaucracies, increasing proportions of employees are needed to provide the coordination and managing of others. These mid-level managers, in turn, report to supervisors, and become the links in the "chains of power and obedience, coordinating and supervising other occupational experiences, functions and skills" (1951, p. 69). With the growth and bureaucratization of the corporate structure, the increasing tasks of government draw still more people into "occupations that regulate and service property and men" (1951, p. 69).

The central characteristics regarding white-collar workers in modern industrial societies are that they are unorganized and dependent upon large bureaucracies for their existence. Unlike the

professionals of old, the modern white-collar worker is not free to exercise professional judgment and control, rather he is subject to the manipulations and control of the organization.

By rising to numerical importance in the middle of the twentieth century they have upset the Marxist expectations that society would be divided between entrepreneurs and workers. By their mass existence and dependence they have changed the character and feel of American life. By focusing on white-collar life, Mills believes, we can learn much about American character (1951, p. xv).

Mills repeatedly makes the point that white-collar people are dependent upon the organization for their livelihood. To get and keep these jobs they sell not only their time and skills, but their personalities as well. This is because even the most personal traits are of relevance to the smooth functioning of the organization or to the marketing of goods and services. White-collar workers must learn to repress any resentment or aggression, they are required to smile and dance on command, to live at all times on the job in accordance with the rules of the organization laid down from above.

Mills identifies the division of labor as permeating ever-higher reaches of the white-collar hierarchy. Jobs and tasks that used to be performed by a single individual are now broken up in terms of functions and parceled out to several. Many executives are becoming less autonomous, permitted less initiative on the job. Because of centralization, brought on by the thrust toward ever greater efficiency, decision making increasingly "becomes the application of fixed rules" (1951, p. 141).

This parceling out (or "industrialization") of many executive tasks have allowed bureaucracies to extend the reach of many professionals--allowing them to serve many more clients--through the proliferation of the "semi-professions" and office technology. The semi-professions consist of men and women of very specialized training who engage in the provision of limited and circumscribed services, often under the supervision of the professional. Compared to the traditional professional, semi-professionals have limited authority, prestige, and income (1951, p. 141). It is to the semi-professions that the children of the working classes often aspire.

The other development that has enabled the ever more refined division of labor are the new office machines. Already in 1951, Mills saw the use of office automation as a prime mover in the drive toward centralization in the pursuit of efficiency and profits. And he saw that we have only just begun. "Only when the machinery and the social organization of the office are fully integrated in terms of maximum efficiency per dollar spent will that age be full blown" (1951, p. 195).

Jobs, Mills observed, are broken up into simple functional tasks. Standards are set in terms of pace and output. Where economically viable, machines are employed. Where automation is impossible, the tasks are parceled out to the unskilled. Policy making and executive functions are

centralized and moved up the hierarchy. Semi-professionals are employed to execute these decisions and keep the hierarchy informed. This increasing automation and hyper- specialization is done with an eye toward increasing output while lowering per unit costs. All of which is integral to the centralization and enlargement of executive authority, prestige, and wealth.

With the automation of the office and the growth in the division of labor, the number of routine jobs is increased, authority and job autonomy become attributes of only the top positions. There is an ever greater distinction made in terms of power, prestige, and income between managers and staff (1951, p. 205). The routinized worker is discouraged from using his own independent judgment; his decision making is in accordance with strict rules handed down by others. He becomes alienated from his intellectual capacities, work becomes an enforced activity. The worker becomes alienated from fully realizing himself in his work. By engaging in routinized activity in the name of efficiency, he becomes "estranged" from the work process, alienated from the self (1951, p. 226).

Many of the trends in the workplace of the 1950s, Mills reports, are serving to undermine the status of the white-collar worker. Increasingly, according to Mills, white-collar work is losing associated skills, autonomy, and thus prestige (Elwell, 1999). One trend that is serving to devalue the status of white-collar jobs is the sheer growth in the numbers of these jobs. This growth is fueled by the increase in the number of people from the lower classes receiving a high school education. When everybody joins a club, Mills notes, it is no longer exclusive, no longer prestigious.

[Mills adds that while the middle-class monopoly on a high school education has been broken, the U.S. has still not reached a situation of equality of educational opportunity. Far too many are still unable to complete high school because of economic circumstances (1951, p. 267).]

By down-grading the education and skill levels required of many white-collar occupations, enlarging the number of people within white-collar occupations, raising the manual laborer's income, and increasing the rates of unemployment among white-collar workers, the status of white-collar is in decline. As we will see, Mills believes this status decline has many effects on the character of the white-collar worker.

The rise of white-collar work also has a profound effect on educational systems in bureaucratic-industrial societies. Educated intelligence, in the traditional sense of the word, becomes penalized in white-collar work, where job performance and promotion are based on routinized work and following the bureaucratic rules and dictates of others (1951, 267). As a result, Mills says, American education has shifted toward a vocational focus. High schools, as well as colleges, have become the training grounds for the large bureaucracies of government and industry (1951, p. 266).

The aim of a college education today is to prepare the young for a good job in a large corporation or for service in a government agency. This involves not only vocational training, but also education in the proper social values and mannerisms (1951, p. 267). While the aim of 19th century American schooling was the creation of the "good citizen" of democracy, in the middle of the 20th century it has become the creation of the successful man in a society of specialists.

Power & Authority

It is in White Collar, not The Power Elite, that Mills first notes the tremendous enlargement and centralization of bureaucracies in modern industrial societies. One consequence of the enlargement of bureaucracy, Mills asserts, is the sheer growth in the number of managers and administrator in every sphere of society.

As with any position within the social structure, the position of manager or administrator prescribes a set of role expectations and behaviors, role expectations that Mills labels the "managerial demiurge" (1951, p. 77). The role of manager being so central to modern bureaucratic society, with such a large number of people holding the position and many times more subject to their authority, the managerial demiurge has profound consequences for the society as a whole.

For Mills, there are three forms of power. The first is coercion or physical force. Mills writes that such coercion is rarely needed in the modern democratic state. While such power underlies the other two, it is only used as a last resort. The second type of power Mills characterizes as "authority." This is power that is attached to positions and is justified by the beliefs of the obedient. The final form of power, Mills writes, is "manipulation." Manipulation is power that is wielded without the conscious knowledge of the powerless (1958, p. 41). While bureaucratic structures are based on authority, Mills saw such authority often shifting toward manipulation.

Manipulation is not based on terror or external force, although the police powers of the state under gird its authority. Human organizations that depend on the constant use of force and intimidation to discipline its members are extremely inefficient and ultimately ineffective. A system based solely on force must expend much energy policing its members; it stifles initiative, and it provides an obvious target for rallying opposition (1951, p. 110). Rather, the power of manipulation is founded upon the ever more sophisticated methods of control given us by science (including social science) and technology. The truly efficient organization, in a society dominated by large bureaucracies, is based on the techniques and technologies of manipulation.

Mills characterizes the "managerial demiurge" as an elaborate game of manipulation based on both bureaucratic and political skills (1951, p. 81). As modern management becomes the reigning ethos of the age, the shift from explicit authority relationships to more subtle manipulation

becomes the preferred form of power (1951, p. 106). The managerial demiurge does not stop at coordinating the simple behaviors of men and women under its sway, it extends to their opinions and emotions as well (1951, p. 110).

Part of the shift from authority to manipulation is enabled by the new technologies of mass communication, part of the shift is due to the new ideologies of management and the advances in the social sciences (1951, p. 110). But these technological advances (and advances in technique) merely allow the shift to occur. The cause of the shift is the centralization and enlargement of political power itself. Authority has need of legitimation to secure loyalty and obedience. Manipulation arises when such centralized authority is not publicly justified, and when those in power do not believe they can justify it (1951, pp. 349-350).

The goal of manipulation is to have men internalize managerial directives without knowing that these directives are not their own motives, without recognizing that they are being victimized (1951, p. 110). In the shift from coercion and authority to manipulation, power shifts from the overt to the covert, from the obvious to the subtle. Exploitation becomes a psychological process (1951, p. 110).

Symbols of legitimation, Mills maintains, are among the most important areas of study for sociologists. These symbols serve to justify or to oppose the arrangements of power and authority within society. However, such symbols are not autonomous, as many would have us believe. Governments do not necessarily rely on the consent of the governed. Governors can now manufacture consent! We must not confuse government's legitimations with its causes (1959, p. 37).

In "pre-capitalist" times, power and authority were obvious and personal, often engendering fear and obedience. If, however, that power should fail to keep people in line, the holder of power and authority could easily become the target of revolt. Manipulative power, on the other hand, is soft and often disguised as therapeutic or advisory.

Over the years the U.S. has been transformed from a nation of small capitalist enterprise to a nation of employees. Yet the ideology suitable for a nation of small capitalists persists and is used to justify the status quo (1951, p. 34). Religion is also used to bless and justify the reigning power relationships. Rather than being used to guide men in the development of conscience, Mills asserts, religious leaders more often blunt that conscience and cover it up with "peace of mind" (1958, p. 152).

Among the means of power that exist today is the power to manage and manipulate the consent of men. Because the power of manipulation is hidden it deprives the oppressed from identifying the oppressor. This power effectively removes the check of reason and conscience of the ruled on the ruler (1959, pp. 40-41).

Large bureaucratic organizations also affect the relations between the rulers and the ruled. Such organizations insulate the managers from those in lower offices, cutting them off from identifying with them (1951, pp. 110-111). In a bureaucratic setting the decision-maker is often far removed from his victims. Opposition in such a situation is difficult to organize. Because of manipulation, targets for revolt are not readily recognizable, because of bureaucratization they are not readily available (1951, p. 349). Such a situation promotes not only schemers whose explicit ideology is to manipulate the ruled, but a system of social control that fosters irresponsibility on the part of the rulers.

White-collar people subject to the manipulations and control of their superiors, lose both freedom of action and creativity on the job. Such individuals will learn to seek satisfactions elsewhere (1951, p. 228). Emptied of all other meanings and legitimations, jobs are emptied of any intrinsic meaning. Money, in order to build a life outside of work, becomes the only rationale for work itself.

Human factors, such as personality and disposition, increasingly play a role in the efficiency and productivity of bureaucracies and service agencies. Because of this, human relations management has increasingly focused on morale (1951, p. 233). The object of the human relations school is to give the workers the illusion of personal autonomy and a caring environment in order to engender loyalty and commitment to the organization. Under the human relations school, management becomes an elaborate manipulation of workers to maximize productivity (1951, p. 235).

Elites

Mills believed that the bureaucratization of the social structure was both partial and unevenly spread. Yet he saw it as an on-going process, a process that threatened to replace our once loosely integrated democracy with a more managed "corporate-like society" (1951, p. 78). The power of decision- makers, Mills points out, has always been limited by the technology of violence and the degree of organization that prevails in a society. But historically in the West, the means of violence has greatly increased, and the degree of organization has enlarged, centralized, and become ever more efficient (1956, p. 23). Those at the top of the bureaucratic hierarchies that dominate modern industrial society are far more powerful than Caesar, Napoleon, Lenin, or even Hitler. "That the facilities of power are enormously enlarged and decisively centralized means that the decisions of small groups are now more consequential" (1956, p. 23).

According to Mills, there is a power elite in modern societies, an elite who command the resources of vast bureaucratic organizations that have come to dominate industrial societies (1956, pp. 3-4). As the bureaucracies have centralized and enlarged the circle of those who run these organizations have narrowed and the consequences of their decisions have become enormous (1956, p. 7).

According to Mills, the power elite are the key people in the three major institutions of modern society:

- Government
- Military
- Corporations

These institutions have become larger, more powerful, and more centralized in their decision making. Together, the leaders of these institutions have become unified elite who, while not omnipotent, are formidable.

The elite occupy the key leadership positions within the bureaucracies that now dominate modern societies, the positions in which the effective means of power are now located (1956, p. 9). Thus their power is rooted in authority, an attribute of social organizations, not of individuals. The bureaucracies of state, corporations, and military have become enlarged and centralized and are a means of power never before equaled in human history. These hierarchies of power are the key to understanding modern industrial societies. For these hierarchies are the very basis of power, wealth and prestige in modern times.

By asserting that there is a power elite in American society, Mills is not asserting that there is a self-conscious ruling class who is cynically manipulating the masses. It is not a conspiracy of evil men, he argues, but a social structure that has enlarged and centralized the decision-making process and then placed this authority in the hands of men of similar social background and outlook (1956, pp. 7-9). In Mills' view, major national power now resides almost exclusively in the economic, political, and military domains. All other institutions have diminished in scope and power and been either pushed to the side of modern history, or made subordinate to the big three.

Schools, he asserts, have become appendages of corporations and government, sorting and training young people for their corporate careers, and in so doing inculcating patriotism, respect for authority, and the glories of capitalism along the way. Families are still major socialization agents of the young, but they now share this function with schools and the mass media (1956, p. 6). Through the socialization process, each of us has come to embrace and internalize the system as it is. A general consensus of what is right and natural, good and just, valued and reviled is forged. The interests of the elites become our interests, they become internalized and legitimized.

It is their similar social backgrounds that provide one of the major sources of unity among the elite. The majority of the elite, Mills asserted, come from the upper third of the income and occupational pyramids. They are born of the same upper class. They attend the same preparatory schools and Ivy League universities.

They join the same exclusive gentleman's clubs, belong to the same organizations. They are closely linked through intermarriage. It is these common experiences and role expectations that produce men of similar character and values (1956, p. 19). Non-upper class members of the elite consist of hired corporate managers, experts, and corporate lawyers—men who are competent technocrats, who have risen through the ranks, and are subsequently sponsored by the elite and the organizations that they control.

Mills contends that coordination between government and corporations does not just depend on private clubs or being from the same social class. Some of the coordination comes from the interchange of personnel between the three elite hierarchies. The closeness of business and government officials can be seen, Mills asserts, by the ease and frequency with which men pass from one hierarchy to another (1951, p. 83).

Mills also asserted that a good deal of the coordination comes from a growing structural integration of dominant institutions. As each of the elite domains becomes larger, more centralized, and more consequential in its activities, its integration with the other spheres becomes more pronounced. Government, military, and economic decisions become increasingly coordinated and inter-linked. There becomes an unstated structured bias of government and corporate leaders toward one another's interests. National governments are held accountable for the health of their economies. Economies rely on the production of military weapons and the projection of military power. There is an increasing convergence of the interests of the elite (1956, pp. 7-8).

Of the three sectors of institutional power, Mills claims, the corporate sector is the most powerful. But the power elite cannot be understood as a mere reflection of economic elites; rather it is the alliance of economic, political, and military power.
Below the power elite, Mills saw two other levels of power in American society. At the bottom are the great masses of people. Largely unorganized, ill informed, and virtually powerless, they are controlled and manipulated from above. The masses are economically dependent; they are economically and politically exploited. Because they are disorganized, the masses are far removed from the classic democratic public in which voluntary organizations hold the key to power (1956, pp. 28-29).

Between the masses and the elite Mills saw a middle level of power. Composed of local opinion leaders and special interest groups, they neither represent the masses nor have any real effect on the elite. Mills saw the American Congress and American political parties as a reflection of this middle-level of power. Although Congress and political parties debate and decide some minor issues, the power elite ensures that no serious challenge to its authority and control is tolerated in the political arena (1958, p. 36).

The liberal theory of government as the result of a moving balance of forces depends upon an assumption of truly independent units of roughly equal power. And this assumption, according to Mills, rested upon the existence of a large and independent middle class. However, the old independent middle class declined with the small businessman, the true independent professional, and the family farm. Moreover, it has been replaced by the rise of a new class of white collar workers and quasi professionals dependent upon large corporate, government, and military bureaucracy. The new middle class is in the same economic position as the wage worker, dependent upon the large organization. Politically, they are in worse condition for they are not even represented by labor unions (1958, p. 36).

The clash between competing interests occurs at the middle level of power, but it is mainly the clash over a slice of the existing pie. It is this clash that is written about by the political commentators and political scientists, but it is far removed from any clash and debate over fundamental policy.

Even here, Mills asserts, the clash between competing interests becomes muted as these interests increasingly become integrated into the apparatus of the state. Bureaucratic administration replaces politics, the maneuvering of cliques replaces the open clash of parties.

The process of integrating previously autonomous political forces (such as labor, professional organizations, and farmers) into the modern state is overt in modern totalitarianism. In the formal democracies the process is much less advanced and explicit, yet it is still well under way. These interest groups increasingly maneuver within and between the political parties and organs of the state seeking to become a part of the state. Their chief desire is to maintain their organizations and to secure for their members maximum economic advantage (1958, p. 39-40). The middle level of power thus does little to question the rule of the elite; nor does it seek any benefit for the great masses of men and women outside of their organization.

In those societies in which power is diffuse and decentralized, history is the result of innumerable decisions by numerous men. All contribute to eventual changes in social structure. In such societies, no one individual or small group has much control, history moves "behind men's backs." But in societies in which the means of power have become enlarged and centralized, the men who control the dominant bureaucracies modify the structural conditions in which most men live.

The positions of the elite allow them to transcend the ordinary environments of men and women. The elite have access to levers of power that make their decisions (as well as their failure to act) consequential. In a society in which structural institutions have become enlarged, centralized, and all encompassing, who controls those institutions becomes the central issue of our time. One important consequence of this fact, Mills asserts, is that leaders of the modern nation state can exert much more coordination and control over the actions of that state.

To date, Mills fears, these leaders are acting (or failing to act) with irresponsibility, thus leading us to disaster. But this does not mean that it always must be so. The great structural change that has enlarged the means and extent of power and concentrated it in so few hands now makes it imperative to hold these men responsible for the course of events (1958, p. 100).

By 1958, Mills seemed much more concerned with the rise of militarism among the elites than with the hypothesis that many elites were military men. According to Mills, the rise of the military state serves the interests of the elite of industrial societies (1958, pp. 86-87). For the politician the projection of military power serves as a cover for their lack of vision and innovative leadership. For corporate elites the preparations for war and the projection of military power underwrites their research and development as well as provides a guarantee of stable profits through corporate subsidies (1958, p. 87). This militarism is inculcated in the population through school room and pulpit patriotism, through manipulation and control of the news, through the cultivation of opinion leaders and unofficial ideology.

But it is not just the existence of a power elite that has allowed this manufactured militarism to dominate. It has also been enabled by the apathy and moral insensibility of the masses and by the political inactivity of intellectuals in both communist and capitalist countries. Most intellectual, scientific, and religious leaders are echoing the elaborate confusions of the elite. They are refusing to question elite policies, they are refusing to offer alternatives. They have abdicated their role, they allow the elite to rule unhindered (1958, pp. 88-89).

Mass Society

One of the great unifiers of life and character in the U.S. are the mass communications industry. Mass communications, according to Mills, serves to mold modern consciousness and political thought (1951, p. 333). Mills goes on to point out that there were no mass media to speak of in Marx's day, so its influence would be easy to overlook. But in the modern world, he asserts, the form and content of political and social consciousness cannot be understood without reference to the image of the world presented by these media.

What a person comes to believe about a whole range of issues is a function of his experience, his first-hand contact with others, and his exposure to the mass media. In this, Mills asserts, the media is often the one that is decisive. The mass media are now the common denominator of American consciousness. They extend across all social environments, now even directly reaching out to mold the consciousness of children. Contents and images in the media have become a part of our self-image, and will over the next few generations modify the very character of man (1951, p. 334).

Mills is not writing simply of the news and the explicit political content of the mass media. This, he claims, characterizes but a small portion of the fare served up to the American people on a daily basis. Rather, Mills is focused on the rapidly growing entertainment and marketing industries. Entertainment and sports, which in their modern scale were only some 30 years old at Mills' writing, serve to divert attention from politics and social issues. The mass marketing of consumer products, which sponsors these attractions, is also a recent phenomenon that has a profound impact on the consciousness of men and women (1951, p. 336).

The role of the salesman has shifted in a society that is threatened by a glut of consumer goods. Mass production has meant an increasing need to distribute goods to national markets. Before mass production and the consequent need to move product, salesmanship meant knowledge of a product and providing that information to the potential buyer. Now, salesmanship focuses upon "hypnotizing the prospect," a science/art pioneered by psychology that has become pervasive in society. Ad-men and psychologists attempt to improve their techniques of persuading people to buy (1951, 165).

Persuasion, according to Mills, becomes a style of life for all types of relationships--marketers selling their products, entrepreneurs selling their ideas, campaign managers selling their candidates, employees selling themselves. The culture of selling has become so ingrained in the American psyche that it has become an "all-pervasive atmosphere," we have turned America into the "biggest bazaar" in the history of the world (1951, pp 165-166). This "Big Bazaar," Mills asserts, is as important in understanding modern life as the family or the factory.

Like the family, it feeds, clothes, amuses, supplying all necessities and creating in us additional "needs." Like the factory, it manufactures the "dreams of life," dedicated to surrounding people with the "commodities for which they live" (1951, p. 167). While success has always been a driving force in American society, the confusion of success with mere consumption has made it a "dubious motive," and emptied it of real meaning as a way of life (1951, p. 259).

Rationalization

But what is at the root of the enlargement and centralization of structural bureaucracies in the modern world? Mills answers this question clearly and repeatedly, the rationalization of the world is the master trend of our time. The key to power in the modern world is social organization and technological development. The means of production are now organized to maximize efficiency, and in that cause bureaucracies have become ever more encompassing, work ever more alienating, and culture ever more exploitive. Also behind the growth in the power, scope, and scale of bureaucracy is the new technology of coordination and control—a technology that Mills recognized as being in its infancy (1951, p. 195; 1956, p. 7).

As applied to work in industrial-bureaucratic societies, rationalization has led to jobs that have been reduced to standardized (and thus easily repeatable) movements and decision making in accordance with written rules and regulations. While rationalization has led to the unprecedented increase in both the production and distribution of goods and services, it is also associated with depersonalization, a loss of personal control over the work tasks, and oppressive routine.

The process of rationalization is not restricted to the office; it permeates all areas of social life. "Training for rationalization" begins in the school systems, as schools have been enjoined to provide job training, socialization into authority and bureaucracy, specialization, and goal oriented problem solving. "Families as well as factories, leisure as well as work, neighborhoods as well as states--they become parts of a functionally rational totality..." (1959, p. 169).

Mills saw American farmers being rapidly polarized into two groups. The first, he characterized as small subsistence farmers and wage-workers. The second, as big commercial farmers and rural corporations (1951, p. 19). Behind this movement toward ever-increasing farm size or consequent bankruptcy, of course, stood the machine. The world of the corporate farmer is becoming more and more interdependent with the world of finance, business, and government. These bureaucracies carry the rationalization of the farm forward (1951, pp. 40-41).

While Mills recognized that the rationalization of the farm had a ways to go before it was complete, it had already destroyed the rural way of life. Farming, he wrote, was becoming more and more like any other industry. The "family farm" a nostalgic term used provide an "ideological veil" for large business interests (1951, p. 44).

Science in the U.S., Mills points out, is an extremely rationalized and bureaucratized enterprise. From the start, science in America has been identified closely with its technological products and its techniques. Recently, it has taken on the social organization of the "assembly line." The U.S. has especially excelled in applied military and commercial projects, and in the marketing and mass production of these discoveries and inventions. This is in stark contrast to the classic academic tradition of pure research, unfettered and uncoordinated by practical needs or commercial interests. "In brief, the U.S. has built a Science Machine: a corporate organization and rationalization of the process of technological development and to some extent--I believe unknown--of scientific discovery itself" (1958, p. 161).

Social Problems

Mills' sociology focuses on substantive problems of modern industrial societies. He identified five overarching problems: 1) alienation; 2) moral insensibility; 3) threats to democracy; 4) threats to human freedom; and 5) the conflict between bureaucratic rationality and human reason. Each of these problems, according to Mills, are due to the bureaucratization process.

Like Marx, Mills views the problem of alienation as a characteristic of modern society and one that is deeply rooted in the character of work. The shift from a rural and agriculturally based world to an urban society in which many employees depend upon large bureaucracies have set up the "property conditions" for alienation to spread beyond the factory (1951, p. 224). Many of the characteristics of white-collar work are just as alienating as the manufacturing work that Marx wrote about. Most white-collar jobs do not entail much freedom or decision making on the job, few entail work as craftsmanship.

White-collar work may even be considered more alienating than traditional blue-collar work, according to Mills, in that white-collar often involves the subjugation of the entire personality into the work process, not just the physical actions of the worker (1951, p. 225 & 1951, p. 227). This "personality market" that is part of much white-collar work (Mills claims that personality is often the more decisive on getting and keeping a job than skills) "underlies the all-pervasive distrust and self-alienation so characteristic" of modern people (1951, pp. 87-88).

Unlike Marx, however, Mills does not attribute alienation to capitalism alone. While he agrees that much alienation is due to the ownership of the means of production, he believes much of it is also due to the modern division of labor (1951, p. 225). The precise degree of alienation will vary, according to Mills, with the degree of autonomy, freedom, and level of skill that a worker brings to the job. Nevertheless, almost any job in modern society will be characterized by some degree of alienation because the employee's actions are subject to the management of others.

Because of the detailed division of labor, the worker does not carry through the work process to the final product. In fact, the worker is often not even aware of the entire process. This, Mills argues, cut the link of meaning between process and product. White-collar work is also alienating because, even in many professional jobs, the worker is often denied the chance to employ his mind by the centralized decision making that characterizes the modern bureaucratic enterprise. the root cause of alienation, Mills states, goes far beyond ownership and markets--it is in the form of organization itself. An organization that removes the worker from any understanding of his work, removes him from control over his work, and determines for men when and how fast they will work.

But the destruction of freedom and autonomy, craftsmanship and control on the job is not felt as a crisis by modern man. They might feel it as a crisis, Mills states, if they had either directly experienced the shift themselves or perhaps indirectly experienced it through their parents. However, this has not been the case. The loss has occurred gradually over the last several generations, it is only in the imaginations of the social scientist that we can gauge its importance (1951, p. 228). However, even though American workers do not feel this loss of connection in their work they are still disconnected. Such workers must seek meaning in their lives elsewhere.

One of the fundamental problems of mass society is that many people have lost their faith in leaders and are therefore very apathetic. Such people pay little attention to politics. Mills characterizes such apathy as a "spiritual condition" which is at the root of many of our contemporary problems (1958, pp. 81- 82). For example, war and peace between nations, Mills claims, cannot be understood through naive appeals to better communications between people, or assertions of innate human aggression. War in modern times, Mills writes, is rooted in the apathy of the people who are "selected, molded, and honored in the mass society" (1958, p. 81). This apathy leads to "moral insensibility." Such people mutely accept atrocities committed by their leaders. They lack indignation when confronted with moral horror, they lack the capacity to morally react to the character, decisions, and actions of their leaders (1958, p. 82).

Mass communications contributes to this condition, Mills argues, through the sheer volume of images aimed at the individual in which she "becomes the spectator of everything but the human witness of nothing" (1958, p. 83). Images of horror become common place. Atrocities are gotten used to, they are emptied of any human meaning. There is little sense of moral outrage or shock.

Mills relates this moral insensibility directly to the rationalization process. Our acts of cruelty and barbarism are split from the consciousness of men--both perpetrators and observers. We perform these acts as part of our role in formal organizations. We are guided not by individual consciousness, but by the orders of others. Thus many of our actions are inhuman, not because of the scale of their cruelty, but because they are impersonal, efficient, and performed without any real emotion (1958, pp. 83-84). We no longer recognize any inner moral constraint, the only constraints to our actions (and the actions of our leaders) come from outside--fear of reprisal from more powerful entities or simple political expediency.

Mills believed that widespread alienation, political indifference, and economic and political concentration of power is a serious threat to democracy. Mills defines democracy as simply a system in which those who are affected by decisions have an effective voice in those decisions. According to Mills, there are six conditions essential for maintaining a modern democratic state:

- A public that is both informed of issues and actively involved in debating these issues.
- "Nationally responsible parties" which debate these issues clearly and openly.
- A skilled civil service independent of any private or corporate interests.
- Intellectuals, both within and outside of academe, who carry on work truly relevant to public policy.

A mass media of communication which is informed by these debates and is capable of translating issues to a broader public Free associations that are capable of linking individuals, families, communities and publics with more formal organizations such as corporations, military, and agencies of government (1958, pp. 121-123).

As is apparent, Mills considered discussion and debate as the cornerstone of democracy. Free associations are necessary vehicles for the exercise and formation of reasoned option. Further, these free associations are necessary to prepare people for leadership at all levels in a fee democratic society (1958, p. 123). There are a number of discrepancies between Mills' conception of an ideal modern democratic state and what is occurring in contemporary America.

Because of these discrepancies, Mills points out, small groups and associations are in decline, and those that do discuss important issues have only "a faint and restraining voice" in formal decision making (1958, p. 123).

The structural factor that prevents the fulfillment of the six conditions for democracy, however, is the existence of a power elite in American society. Private corporations acting in their own interests, the ascendancy of militarism, and the refusal of government to address either are key factors in the decline of democracy in America (1958, pp. 123-124). Power in America is concentrated in a handful of huge bureaucratic organizations. The lines of control between the powerful at the top of these organizations and any democratic control--even among agencies of government itself--"become blurred and tenuous" (1951, p. 158).

Mills saw America as a society of privatized men dominated by huge bureaucratic organizations. These organizations were not firmly legitimated; they do not engender widespread loyalty or enthusiasm. However, he did not see the society as being in any danger of imminent collapse. A society held together by convention and a network of bureaucratic power, he argued, even if only lightly legitimated, may last many years. This is particularly true if the society can deliver high levels of material goods and comfort (1951, p. 350 & 1951, p. 351).

Finally, Mills is continually concerned in his writings with the threat to two fundamental human values: "freedom and reason." Mills characterizes the trends that imperil these values as being "co-extensive with the major trends of contemporary society" (1959, pp. 129-130). These trends are, Mills states throughout his writings, the centralization and enlargement of vast bureaucratic organizations, and the placing of this extraordinary power and authority into the hands of a small elite.

Economic security used to be based on property ownership. For many, however, economic concentration has shifted the basis of economic security to employment. Because employees by definition are dependent upon bureaucracy for their economic security--a bureaucracy over

which they have little control--they can truly be neither free nor secure (1951, pp. 58-59). Because of the concentration of wealth and power, economic freedom--the freedom to do with one's property what one wishes, now places the economic security of thousands of dependent employees at risk, and thus places their freedom at risk as well.

For the individual, rational organization is an alienating organization, destructive of freedom and autonomy. It cuts the individual off from the conscious conduct of his behavior, thought, and ultimately emotions. The individual is guided in her actions not by her consciousness, but by the prescribed roles and the rules of the organization itself. "It is not too much to say that in the extreme development the chance to reason of most men is destroyed, as rationality increases and its locus, its control, is moved from the individual to the big-scale organization. There is then rationality without reason. Such rationality is not commensurate with freedom but the destroyer of it" (1959, p. 170).

In the 18th and 19th centuries, Mills points out, the steady emergence of society organized along rational and democratic principles appeared to be at the forefront of the liberation of man. The irrationalities of traditional monarchies or the rule of the strong and the ruthless were increasingly seen as antithetical to liberty and human happiness. "Now rationality seems to have taken on a new form, to have its seat not in individual men, but in social institutions which by their bureaucratic planning and mathematical foresight usurp both freedom and rationality from the little individual men caught in them. (1951,p. xvii). It is these "calculating hierarchies" which now lay out the "gray ways" of work, that circumscribe individual autonomy and initiative.

Like Weber before him, Mills cautions that a society dominated by rational social organization is not based on reason, intelligence, and good will toward all. Weber summarized this as the difference between substantive (holistic) and formal (bureaucratic) rationality, claiming that the two are often in conflict (Elwell, 1996). In that same vein, Mills asserts that a society dominated by bureaucratic rationality is not one based upon the summation of all the constituent individuals' capacity to reason. He further states that bureaucratic rationality often serves to prevent individuals from even acquiring that capacity (1958, p. 175;1959, p. 169).

For it is through rational social organization that modern day tyrants (as well as more mundane bureaucratic managers) exercise their authority and manipulation, often denying the opportunity of their subjects to exercise their own judgments. We must therefore consider, Mills argues, that as a social product, the human mind might be deteriorating in quality and cultural level (1959, p. 175).

Social Science

One of the central conditions for a modern democracy to exist, according to Mills, is a vibrant intellectual community that is intimately involved in providing knowledge and wisdom to help guide decisions of social policy. By "intellectual community," Mills is referring to scientists, ministers, scholars, artists, and students, those who are part of the great western tradition of reason beginning with the Greeks (1958, p. 129). It is the intellectual community that through art, speech and writing create and disseminate ideas and images that focus the attention of publics on relevant or irrelevant issues, justifies or criticizes the policies of those in authority (1958, p. 129).

The dissemination of publicly relevant ideas by the intellectual community is vital in that private experience enable each individual to "know only a small portion of the social world, only a few of the decisions that now affect them" (1958, p. 173). The significant problems of contemporary society are complicated, but they are not so complicated that they can only be dealt with by professionals and experts. The central task of the intellectual is to confront these complications and make social issues accessible to public understanding, discussion, and debate (1958, p. 15).

Democracy requires that publics that are affected by decisions are knowledgeable about the issues. It is only through the intellectual community fulfilling its task that society can bring reason to bear on social issues, that democracy can be more than a sham.

If as intellectuals we fail to confront these issues, Mills continually asserts, we are in default of our intellectual heritage and have abdicated our duty to our society (1951, p. 158). "What scientist," Mills asks, can claim to be part of the legacy of the great western scientific tradition and yet work for the Military Industrial Complex? What social scientist can claim to be part of the legacy of western humanism and, despite a world in which "reason and freedom" are under attack, retreat into methodologically sophisticated studies of trivia? What minister can know God and still approve of the immortality and irresponsibility of our leaders? Unfortunately, Mills concludes, very many in the intellectual community are in default (1958, p. 130).

If in default, if they fail to speak out as public men, they contribute to the erosion of human freedom, dignity, and democracy (1958, p. 170). Worse, in Mills' view, are members of the intellectual community who provide misleading images of the elite as men of reason who are acting in national as opposed to private interests. Such images serve to "soften the political will," allowing men to accept the irresponsibility and greed "without any sense of outrage." Such apologists allow the elite to escape any accountability to the public, essentially giving "up the central goal of Western humanism, so strongly felt in nineteenth-century American experience: the audacious control by reason of man's fate" (1958, p. 173).

As early as White Collar (1951), Mills was decrying the excessive specialization of the

professorate. Such hyper-specialization leads to an inability to think outside of one' specialized area (1951, pp. 130-131). The prestige system of the academy, of course, contribute to this trend. Books that attempt to span more than one specialty are frowned upon, as are the general textbook within a field. Instead, academic honor and prestige are given for massive tomes on narrow subjects.

This narrowing of knowledge is furthered in the social sciences and humanities by their aping of the methods of the natural sciences--methods that are particularly suited for studying "microscopic fields of inquiry, rather than expanding it to embrace man and society as a whole" (1951, p. 131).

Like other institutions in our society, the university is becoming more and more bureaucratic. This organization has similar effects on the professorate, other professionals, and businessmen. It turns all into bureaucrats executing specialized tasks in accordance with the rules and regulations of the institution (1951, p. 138). The bureaucratic nature of colleges and universities--the hierarchy of authority, the middle-class environment, the separation of intellectual and social life, the excessive academic specialization--all contribute, according to Mills, toward conformity of thought.

The same trends that limit independence of intellect in the larger society are present on the university campus. The professor is an employee, and like all employees is subject to the rule from above in terms of the conditions of work. Writing in the early 50s, of course, Mills notes the attempts to restrain academic freedom through political and business attacks on professors. But he sees such attacks as overtly affecting only a few. Their purpose is in setting the tone for more subtle control of the professorate. While there is also some outright intimidation on some university campuses brought about through tenure, promotion, and merit procedures, there is also the more subtle pressure of collegial control of potential "insurgents." Such manipulative controls keep professors in conformance through "agreements of academic gentlemen" (1951, pp. 151-152). These subtle controls on academic life are also furthered by political and business attempts to standardize curriculums, and by the control of research funds from government agencies and foundations that are "notably averse" to scholars outside the mainstream (1951, pp, 151-152).

The first and central task of the social sciences, according to Mills, is to develop a comprehensive framework for understanding man and society. This framework should be simple enough to allow non-specialists to understand, yet comprehensive enough to encompass the full range and variety of human behavior (1959, p. 133). In accomplishing this task, Mills is decidedly interdisciplinary in outlook. While each of the social sciences tends to specialize in a particular institutional order, any mature social science will relate its findings to the other institutional domains as well. Further, any social science worthy of the name, according to Mills, is firmly rooted in history (1959, p. 145 & 1959, p. 146).

The problem with much social science today, as Mills sees it, is that it is both devoid of theory and any sense of history. Being atheoretical, the social scientist often overlooks the relationships among various technologies, structures, and ideas. Being ahistorical, many social scientists lack the ability to recognize new trends as well as to discriminate between trends of major and minor significance. Classical social analysis, Mills repeatedly insists, is a set of usable traditions and insights that are strongly rooted in history and theory (1959, p. 21).

Classical social science focuses on substantive social problems. It neither builds up from empirical observation nor does it begin with a grand theory of sociocultural systems and deduce down to human behavior. Rather, classic social science places empirical research and theory building in a continuous interaction. Practitioners of the craft attempt to develop comprehensive frameworks for understanding social order, social change, and social problems. They then continually test and reformulate these explanatory frameworks in light of empirical study (1959, p. 128).

However, there are trends within the social sciences as well as trends in the broader society that are endangering the classical tradition and stand in the way of greater social understanding (1959, p. 21). Within the social sciences, Mills maintains, three trends--abstract empiricism, grand theory, and the use of social science to improve bureaucratic efficiency--have arisen that serve to obscure rather than increase people's understanding of human social behavior.
Of the three trends, Mills' identification of "grand theory" and his critique of it now appear dated. His problem with grand theory was really a problem with the work of Talcott Parsons. Mills took Parsons to task for his (rather painful) elaboration and clarification of concepts, and his alleged inability to apply this generalized theory to further understanding of more concrete reality. Parsons type of theory proved to be a short-term trend in the social sciences. Grand theory as defined by Mills is not a widespread practice in any of the social sciences today. However, the other two trends in the social sciences identified by Mills, abstract empiricism and the use of social science to address bureaucratic problems of coordination and control, now dominate.

According to Mills, there is a certain mystique that has grown up around the use of sophisticated research methods (Mills' abstract empiricism). Mills believes this mystique is misplaced. The purpose of empirical research, he asserts, is simply to discipline ideas (1959, p. 71). Much of social research is rather "thin and uninteresting." It provides useful exercises for students, gives employment to unimaginative social scientists, but there is nothing in it inherently superior to other types of scholarship (1959, p. 205).

Increasingly, social science is often being used by the huge bureaucracies that dominate modern

life. Social scientists are often employed by the military, by social service agencies, by the criminal justice system, and by corporations (1959, p. 80). Experts in "human relations" for example, in working to improve the morale of employees are working within the existing system of authority relationships. They are engaged in "manipulation," defining "morale" and exploring ways to improve that morale within the existing relationships of power and authority (1959, pp. 94-95).

Social scientists who work for such bureaucracies are more concerned with administrative problems than human problems, more concerned with efficiency than with humanity. Social science in this cause--whether it be for the military, the advertising agency, or the government bureau--is social science for the "non-democratic areas of society" (1959, pp. 114-115). The goal of such research is simply to make bureaucracies more efficient and therefore not only distracts us from our essential task, but supports the powerful and the status quo (1959, p. 117).

Values, according to Mills, necessarily affect social research. Values certainly play a role in selecting the problems that we study as well as many of our "key conceptions." However, the social scientist should be very clear and explicit about her values, and then should strive the best she can to avoid bias in her work (1959, p. 78). [Mills, it must be noted, was always very clear in stating his values, though notably unsuccessful in avoiding bias.] Mills holds a similar view in regard to teaching. The professor should strive to be very explicit in terms of the assumptions and judgments that he makes. He should clearly indicate to his students "the full range of moral alternatives," and then make his own choices known (1959, p. 79).

The Sociological Imagination

In White Collar (1951), Mills makes an initial stab at defining the sociological imagination by calling it "the first lesson of modern sociology." To understand our experience, Mills asserts, we must locate that experience within the context of our historical time and within our social strata (1951, p. xx). Whether people believe it or not, Mills writes, people are moved by historical and economic forces. Such forces are the stuff of sociology. Ordinary men and women often are oblivious to these forces in their lives (1951, p. 294), or they may be but dimly aware of their impact (1959, p. 3).

The sociological imagination is simply a "quality of mind" that allows one to grasp "history and biography and the relations between the two within society (1959, p. 3 & 1959, p. 6). The sociological imagination enables one to switch from one perspective to another, thereby forming a comprehensive view of the sociocultural system (1959, p. 211). This quality of mind is characteristic of the best of classical social analysis--it is why we still find much of it so useful in understanding social reality. This quality of mind is also characteristic of the best in social science today (1959, p. 6).

Social scientists who employ the sociological imagination in their work consistently address structural and historical issues, and how these issues affect human values and behavior. Structurally, imaginative analysts examine the various components of sociocultural systems and how they relate to one another. Such analysts also compare and contrast these components to components of other sociocultural systems. Historically, the imaginative researcher looks at the major historical trends that affect society through time, she examines the mechanics of social trends and change, and she compares the society to itself over different historical times (1959, pp. 6-7).

Most important, the social scientist of imagination asks how these structures and history have formed and shaped the members of the sociocultural system. "What varieties of men and women now prevail in this society and in this period? And what varieties are coming to prevail (1959, p. 7).

To truly fulfill the promise of social science requires us to focus upon substantive problems, and to relate these problems to structural and historical features of the sociocultural system. These features have meanings for individuals, and they profoundly affect the values, character, and the behavior of the men and women who make up that sociocultural system (1959, p. 134).

The social sciences are often used in "ideological ways." They are used in legitimating power; they are used in criticizing or debunking the powerful; and they are used in distracting attention away from meaningful issues (1959, p. 80). The promise of the social sciences is to bring reason to bear on human affairs (1959, p. 193). To fulfill this role requires that we "avoid furthering the bureaucratization of reason and of discourse" (1959, p. 192).

In C. Wright Mills own words: "What I am suggesting is that by addressing ourselves to issues and to troubles, and formulating them as problems of social science, we stand the best chance, I believe the only chance, to make reason democratically relevant to human affairs in a free society, and so to realize the classic values that underlie the promise of our studies" (1959, p. 194).

Bureaucratization of Schools

The bureaucratization of schools has some advantages but has also led to the perpetuation of discrimination and an aversion to change.

LEARNING OBJECTIVE

- Discuss the critical issues and historical origins of school bureaucratization, particularly in relation to educational reform and deliverance of service.

KEY POINTS

- A bureaucracy is a large, formal, secondary organization characterized by a hierarchy, a clear division of labor, explicit rules, and impersonal that improve efficiency, ensure equal opportunities, and increase efficiency. In reality, some individuals benefit from structural privileges and social origins like a dominant race, language, or culture to which some other individuals may not have access.

- The foundations of the current educational system originated in the Industrial Revolution. The school environment became structured around hierarchy, standardization, and specialization.

- The bureaucratization of schools makes it difficult to instigate appropriate and immediate change when it is required by the changing needs of a society.

- In a pluralistic society, disseminating the dominant culture through public education is a topic of heated social debate. Religious, cultural, and ethnic groups can feel marginalized and alienated when they are forced to conform to bureaucratic structures.

- Advances in information technologies provide constant connectivity to the virtual world. Schools have begun to take advantage of these virtual tools as enhancements and replacements of physical school structures and face-to-face learning experiences.

TERMS

• Education Reform
The process of improving public education.

• Hierarchy
Any group of objects ranked so that everyone but the topmost is subordinate to a specified group above it.

• "one best system"
The idea that there is one uniform, standardized approach that forms the best strategy to educate all children.

EXAMPLES

Schools are environments structured around hierarchy, standardization, and specialization of certain skills. The structural rules and protocol of a bureaucratic school can marginalize groups that have not undergone cultural immersion or sufficient socialization into a society's value system. These groups are more likely to experience institutional discrimination in the bureaucratized school system. Micro-level aggression can be subtler than outright discrimination like racial slurs.

For example, understanding the English language is a valuable skill in American society. A child that grew up in a household where English is not the spoken language might have more problems comprehending English vocabulary in primary school than other students from English-speaking households. In the American classroom of a bureaucratized school, teachers might discriminate against this student by interacting with the student as if he/she were less capable than his/her peers of learning course material.

Another example could be a child raised on cultural values of silence and obedience who enters a course dependent on argumentative and talkative students for classroom discussions. The teacher and the child's peers might discriminate against the child in micro-level interactions based on assumptions that the child does not have anything intelligent to contribute or does not want to actively participate in classroom learning. Since the bureaucratic system of the school is modeled for the dominant group and its cultural values, these hypothetical examples might lead teachers to place students with different social origins than the dominant group in remedial courses or slower learning tracks.

> The adaption of technology is spreading among school districts for any variety of reasons including the ability to exploit Internet access or as a government-funded initiative. The data gathered from the Virtual Educational Organization case study describes how one school district was in the formative stage of developing a virtual organizational structure based upon a convergence of high quality software, Internet connectivity, and capacity building to support digital teaching and learning. This school district was actively adopting technology and software as integrated, and integral, components of the traditional bureaucratic hierarchical brick and mortar system of schooling. Not only was technology changing the nature of teaching and learning, aspects of the educational organization were being replaced by software that extended the nature of school organization into virtual management, virtual leadership, virtual pedagogy, and virtual learning that resulted in online and hybrid courses that, taken together, were an extension of the local school and school district. This study indicated that this K-12 educational organization was taking technology beyond a useful application of computers as one-dimensional tools to an emerging multi-dimensional media rich structure that extended learning into a personalized digital educational experience.

A bureaucracy is an organization of non-elected officials of a government or organization who implement the rules, laws, and functions of their institution. In modern society, all formal organizations are, or likely will become, bureaucracies.

According to Weber

The German sociologist (1864-1920) began to study bureaucracy and popularize the term in academic literature and discourse during the mid 1800s and early 1900s. Weber believed that bureaucracy was the most efficient and rational way of organizing. For Weber, bureaucratization was the key process in his theory on rationalization of Western society. Weber popularly characterized a bureaucracy as having a hierarchy of authority, a clear division of labor, explicit rules, and impersonality.

Critical Issues of School Bureaucratization

There are several positive aspects of bureaucracies. They are intended to ensure equal opportunities and increase efficiency based on a meritocratic structure. Meritocracy means that hiring and promotion should be based on proven and documented skills, rather than on nepotism or random choice. For example, in order to get into a prestigious college, you need to perform well on the SAT and have an impressive transcript. In order to become a lawyer and represent clients, you must graduate from law school and pass the state bar exam. However, the theory of meritocracy becomes convoluted when it is applied to schools because some individuals have access to privileges that give them advantages over other individuals. For example, wealthy families can hire tutors, interview coaches, test-prep services, and consultants to help their kids gain the valued skills that will ultimately help them get into the best schools.

Despite good intentions and abundant rhetoric about "equal educational opportunity," schools have rarely taught the children of the poor effectively. This failure has been systematic, not idiosyncratic. Talk about "keeping the schools out of politics" has often served to obscure actual alignments of power and patterns of privilege. For example, before the Emancipation Proclamation, many black people sought education through private, voluntary schools, which shows that they had a strong desire for education, generally believing that they could improve their social status through the equalizing power of schooling. However, they were excluded from the school system by segregation laws. Even after desegregation, black students faced intense racism in mixed schools, and minority students continue to face institutional racism and discrimination on the level of micro-interactions.

Historical Origins of School Bureaucratization

In order to understand the bureaucratization of schools, we must understand the historical development of the school system. When the U.S. transformed into an urban, industrial nation, corporations flourished, potential employees needed an education for a decent job, child labor laws were enforced, and the urban school system changed. During the Industrial Revolution, bureaucracies developed alongside the educational foundations for the current school model. Young workers were trained and organizations were built for mass production, assembly line work, and factory jobs. In schools, students learned to value hierarchical command, standardized outcomes, and specialized skills. These needs formed the basis for school bureaucracies today.

Various interest groups have continually called for education reform. However, bureaucratic authority often perpetuates positions and outworn practices of bureaucracy at the expense of timely change and appropriate education for children's needs. City councils, school boards, superintendents, principals, and government officials from different interest groups and standpoints disagree about the "one best system" for the reproduction of American society. Most critics of school bureaucracies do not question the aim of transmitting the dominant culture through public education, but some dissenters oppose this strategy precisely because they fear children will lose valuable cultural differences through their socialization in the American system.

Immigration trends have posed serious concerns for public school education systems because immigrants often bring religious, ethnic, and cultural differences to the classroom that differ from the protocol and ideology of "one best system. " School bureaucracies seek to assimilate foreigners by teaching them English, indoctrinating them in American civics, and providing them with skills and habits needed in the urban job market.

Modern Society and School Bureaucratization

The assumption that there is "one best system" for educating children has been especially problematic within the context of a pluralistic American society, a globalized world, and advances in information technology. Now, in the information age, this kind of rigid training and adherence to protocol can actually decrease both productivity and efficiency. The model of American education based upon the industrial factory is undergoing a revolution based upon emerging technologies that redefine school organization as a virtual as well as a physical learning environment. In the twenty-first century teaching, learning, and the educational system itself have been buffeted by forces that challenged the traditional bureaucratic arrangement of schools with tall administrative hierarchies, centralized decision-making, and tightly controlled structures.

Education and the Global Perspective

In today's world, some degree of education is necessary for people in most countries.

LEARNING OBJECTIVE
Discuss recent worldwide trends in education, including mass schooling, the emergence of secondary education in the U.S., native education, higher education, and online learning

KEY POINTS
Education is the means through which the aims and habits of a group of people are passed from one generation to the next.

Location contributes to a child's lack of access to primary education. In certain areas of the world, children have difficulty getting to school.

Gender often factors into a child's access to education.

Costs contribute to a child's lack of access to primary education. High opportunity costs are often influential in the decision to attend school.

Mass schooling has perpetuated the idea that everyone has a right to be educated regardless of his/her cultural background and gender.

A lack of access to education is one of the primary barriers to human development.

TERMS

Mass Schooling
The phenomenon that describes the rise in school attendance worldwide.

Internationalization of Education
The increased emphasis on international cultural exchange in the course of education.

EXAMPLES
UNESCO has found that the number of children enrolled in primary schools worldwide rose by more than 40 million between 1999 and 2007. The net primary enrollment in sub-Saharan Africa rose from 58% to 74% over the same period, and international aid commitments to basic education almost doubled from $2.1 billion in 2002 to $4.1 billion in 2007.

Currently, there are more than 75 million children around the world of primary school age who are not in school. The majority of these children are in regions of sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. Within these regions, girls are at the greatest disadvantage in receiving access to education at the primary school age.

There is currently a gender discrepancy in education. Enrollment is low for both boys and girls in sub-Saharan Africa, with rates of just 27% and 22%. Today some 78% of girls drop out of school, compared with 48% of boys. Therefore, child's gender continues to contribute to access and attendance today.

High opportunity costs are often influential in the decision to attend school. For example, according to UNICEF, an estimated 121 million children of primary-school age are being kept out of school to work in the fields or at home.

Education is becoming increasingly international. In Europe, for example, the Socrates-Erasmus Program stimulates exchanges across European universities. Also, the Soros Foundation provides many opportunities for students from central Asia and Eastern Europe.

Education Today

In today's world, some degree of education is necessary for people in most countries. Due to population growth and the proliferation of compulsory education, UNESCO has calculated that in the next 30 years, more people will receive formal education than in any prior period of human history. In fact, illiteracy and the percentage of populations without any schooling have already decreased, from 36% in 1960 to 25% in 2000.

Education in its broadest, most general sense is a means through which the aims and habits of a group of people is passed from one generation to the next. Generally, education results from any experience that affects the way in which one thinks, feels, or acts. In its narrowest, most technical sense, education is the formal process (e.g., instruction in schools) by which society deliberately passes accumulated knowledge, skills, customs, and values from one generation to the next.

Education in the Developing World

India is developing technologies that bypass land-based telephone and internet lines. The country recently launched EDUSAT, an education satellite that can reach a great number of people at a significantly reduced cost. Another initiative, started by the OLPC foundation, involving a group from the MIT Media Lab, and supported by several major corporations, has developed a $100 laptop for the delivery of educational programs. As of 2008, the laptops were already widely available.

In Africa, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) has launched an e-school program. The goal is to provide 600,000 primary and high schools with computer equipment, learning materials, and internet access within 10 years. Private groups, like Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, are also working to improve access to education through such programs as the Perpetual

Education Fund.

Internationalization (Globalization and Education)

Education is becoming increasingly international, and mass schooling has promoted the fundamental idea that everyone has a right to be educated regardless of his/her cultural background. In Europe, for example, the Socrates-Erasmus Program fosters exchanges between European universities, while the Soros Foundation provides educational opportunities to students from central Asia and eastern Europe. Programs such as the International Baccalaureate have also contributed to the internationalization of education. Some scholars argue that, regardless of the perceived quality of different educational systems, experiencing a different system of education can be an important and enriching aspect of an international learning experience. Meanwhile, the global online campus, led by American universities, has promoted free access to class materials and lectures recorded during actual classes. This project further facilitates the globalization of education.

Recent Worldwide Trends

The emergence of secondary education in the United States did not occur until 1910, when a rise in big business and technological advances in factories (for instance, the emergence of electrification) required skilled workers. In order to meet new job requirements, high schools were created with curriculums focused on practical job skills that would prepare students for white- or blue-collar work. This emerging system proved to be beneficial for both the employer and the employee; improved job skills increased efficiency and lowered costs for employers, while skilled employees received higher wages.

Native education refers to the inclusion of native knowledge, models, methods, and content within formal and non-formal educational systems. Often in a post-colonial context, the growing recognition and use of native education methods has been a response to the erosion and loss of native knowledge and language through earlier processes of colonialism. It has also enabled native communities to strengthen links to their traditional languages and cultures, a process that has also been linked to increased academic success.

Higher education generally involves work towards a degree-level or foundation degree qualification. In most developed countries, a high proportion of the population (up to 50%) now

obtain higher education at some point in their lives. Higher education is therefore important to national economies as both a significant industry in its own right and a source of trained and educated personnel.

As a result of the Internet, higher education is increasingly open and accessible.

Online learning gives students flexibility and choice in terms of what, when, and at what pace they learn. Many universities and organizations are creating open educational resources that self-motivated students can access anywhere and at any time. Unlike traditional forms of higher education, open, online education generally does not take the form of recognized degree programs.

Education and Technology

It has been argued that high rates of education are essential for countries to be able to achieve high levels of economic growth.

LEARNING OBJECTIVE
Define education economics, human capital, human capital flight, and educational technology

KEY POINTS
In the developing world, there is economic pressure from those parents who prioritize sending their children to work to make money in the short term over any long-term benefits of education.

Education economics is the study of economic issues relating to education, including the demand for education and the financing and provision of education.

The central idea of human capital is that undertaking education is investment in the acquisition of skills and knowledge which will increase earnings.

Human capital flight, more commonly referred to as the "brain drain," is the large-scale emigration of a large group of individuals with technical skills or knowledge.
Educational technology is the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using, and managing appropriate technological processes and resources.

TERMS
brain drain
The migration of educated or talented people from less- economically advanced areas to more economically advanced areas, especially to large cities or richer countries.

Education Economics
The study of economic issues relating to education, including the demand for education and the financing and provision of education.

human capital
The stock of competencies, knowledge, social, and personality attributes, including creativity, embodied in the ability to perform labor so as to produce economic value.

EXAMPLE
There are various types of technologies currently used in traditional classrooms. Among these are computers in the classroom, a website for every class, class blogs and wikis, wireless classroom microphones, online media, and interactive whiteboards.

In developing countries, the number and seriousness of the problems faced is naturally greater. People are sometimes unaware of the importance of education, and there is economic pressure from those parents who prioritize their children's making money in the short term over any long-term benefits of education. Recent studies on child labor and poverty have suggested, however, that when poor families reach a certain economic threshold where families are able to provide for their basic needs, parents return their children to school. This has been found to be true, once the threshold has been breached, even if the potential economic value of the children's work has increased since their return to school.

Education and Economic Growth
It has been argued that high rates of education are essential for countries to be able to achieve high levels of economic growth. Empirical analyses tend to support the theoretical prediction that poor countries should grow faster than rich countries because they can adopt cutting edge technologies already tried and tested by rich countries. Education economics is the study of economic issues relating to education, including the demand for education and the financing and provision of education. The dominant model of the demand for education is based on human capital theory. The central idea is that undertaking education is investment in the acquisition of skills and knowledge, which will increase earnings or provide long-term benefits, such as an appreciation of literature. An increase in human capital can follow technological progress as knowledgeable employees are in demand due to the need for their skills, whether it be in understanding the production process or in operating machines. Human capital flight, more commonly referred to as the "brain drain," is the large-scale emigration of a large group of individuals with technical skills or knowledge. The reasons usually include two aspects which respectively come from countries and individuals. The brain drain is often associated with de-skilling of emigrants in their country of destination, while their country of emigration experiences the draining of skilled individuals.

Educational Technology
Educational technology is the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using, and managing appropriate technological processes and resources. Technology of education is most simply and comfortably defined as an array of tools that might prove helpful in advancing student learning and may be measured in how and why individuals behave. There are various types of technologies currently used in traditional classrooms. Among these are computers in the classroom; a website for every class; class blogs and wikis; wireless classroom microphones; and online media and interactive whiteboards.

Educational technology is intended to improve education over what it would be without technology. Its benefits include easy-to-access course materials; increased student motivation; improved student writing; subjects made easier to learn; and differentiated instruction.

WINNING PHRASES

• "If you cannot fly, run. If you cannot run, walk. If you cannot walk, crawl, but go ahead anyway." M.Luther King

• "Start by doing what's necessary, then what's possible, and suddenly you are doing the impossible." St. Francis of Assisi

•"Failure is only the opportunity to begin again more intelligently." Henry Ford

• "The future belongs to those who believe in the beauty of their dreams." Elleanor Roosevelt

• "All a dream needs to be done is someone who believes that it can be done." Roberto Shinyashiki

• "Imagine a new story for your life and believe in it." Paulo Coelho

• "Inspiration comes from others. Motivation comes from within us." Junior Montalvao

• "Believing is the first step of several." Eldo Gome

• "Each of us has a fire in her heart for anything. Our goal in life to find it and keep it lit." Mary Lou Retton

• "While we long for life without difficulties, we must remember that the oak grows strong through contrary winds and diamonds are formed under pressure." Peter Marshall

• "Make no haste, but not waste time." José Saramago

• "Every human action, whether it becomes positive or negative, must depend on motivation." Dalai Lama

• "A day will never be more than what you make of it. Practice being a director!" Josh Hinds

• "If you do not want to be forgotten when I die, write things worth reading or do things worth writing." Benjamin Franklin

• "Never confuse movement with action." Ernest Hemingway

• "The Secrete of human existence is not only to live, further, find the reason to live." Dostoyevsky

• "You miss 100% of the shots you never take." Wayne Gretzky

• "You never know what results come of your action. But if you do nothing, there will be no results." Mahatma Gandhi

• "The joy opens, closes his heart to sadness." St. Francis de Sales

• "A joy shared is a joy doubled." John Ray

• "Without work, all life rots. But under a job soulless life stifles and dies." Albert Camus

• "The only way to have a friend is to be one." Ralph Waldo Emerson

• "Life is partly what we make it, and partly what is made by the friends we choose." Tennessee Williams

• "I always do what I can do to learn what I do not know!" Pablo Picasso

• "The impossible becomes reality only if you are well prepared when the chance appears" Oscar Schmidt

• "The man usually trumps more easily in a field of effort you put out of body, soul and heart." Napoleon Hill's book "The Law of triumph"

• "Something is only impossible until someone proves otherwise." Albert Einstein

• " Champions are not made in gyms Champions are made from something they have deep inside themselves:. One wish, one dream, one vision." Muhammad Ali

• "Personality can open doors, but only character can keep them open."
Elmer G. Letterman
• "A man who wants to rule the orchestra must turn his back to the audience." James Crook

• "One should never consent to creep when one feels an impulse to fly."
Helen Keller

• "Be careful what you put in your heart for it will surely be yours."
James Arthur Baldwin

• "Coming together is a beginning, staying together is progress, and working together is success." Henry Ford

• "Smart people choose their own experiences, those experiences that they want to go."
Aldous Huxley

• "There are two primary choices in life: to accept conditions as they exist, or accept the responsibility for changing them." Denis Waitley

• "If we really love ourselves, everything in our life works." Louise L. Hay

• "Pick battles big enough to matter, small enough to WIN." Jonathan Kozol

• "What simple action could you do today to produce a new momentum toward success in your life?" Anthony Robbins

• "The best bet is to bet on yourself." Arnold Glasow

• "Your future depends on many things, but mostly you." Frank Tyger

• "People may doubt what you say, but they believe in what you do."
Lewis Cass

• "An important factor for success is self-confidence. A key to self-confidence factor is preparation." Arthur Robert Ashe, Jr.

• "It is hard to fail, but it is worse never to have tried to WIN." Theodore Roosevelt

- "Who says it does not, who speaks and who acts thinks WINS." Fernando Lapolli
- "Stay at the failure-free before the strong success." Jean Cocteau

- "Men are successful when they realize that their failures are a preparation for their victories." Ralph Waldo Emerson

- "Success is the prize for those who remain faithful to their ideas." Josh S. Hinds

- "Sometimes you have to take a break and visit yourself." Audrey Giorgi

- "Believe and act as if it were impossible to fail." Charles F. Kettering

- "The next frontier is not only ahead of her, she is within you." Robert K. Cooper

- "Man is what he believes." Anton Chekhov

- "He who dominates others is strong. He who dominates himself is mighty." Lao-Tse

- "Be faithful in small things because it is in them that your strength lives." Mother Teresa

- "The problem is not the problem the problem is the attitude toward the problem." Kelly Young

- "Who looks outside, dreams, who looks inside, awakens." Carl Jung

- "If you cannot change your fate, change your attitude." Amy Tan

- "The greatest value in life is not what you get.'s Greatest value in life is what you become." Jim Rohn

- "Everything changes when you change." Jim Rohn

- "The more you care, the stronger you can be." Jim Rohn

• "With the strength of your mind, your instinct, and also with your experience you can fly high." Ayrton Senna

• "There is no virtue or more beautiful than winning command and conquer himself." Bantôme

• "You can have all the talent in the world but if you're not interested in making full use of it, victory is unlikely." George Mikan

• "You cannot build a reputation on what you intend to do." Henry Ford

• "Genius is 1% inspiration and 99% perspiration." Thomas A. Edison

• "There is no comparison between that which is lost by not succeeding and what is lost by not trying." Francis Bacon

• "Personal transformation requires replacing old habits with new ones.". W. A. Peterson

• "People often say that motivation does not last. Well, not showering, and that's why it's recommended daily." zig Ziglar

• "Man is so made that when anything fires his soul, impossibilities vanish." Jean de la Fontaine

• "Leadership is doing what is right when nobody is looking." George Van Valkenburg

• "The leader has to be practical and realistic, but should talk to console language visionary and the idealist." Eric Hoffer

• "The rare moment is not the moment when there is something worth looking at, but the moment you are able to see." Joseph Wood Krutch

• "We are not what we know. We are what we are willing to learn." Council on Ideas

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blurb

“Reforming education isn't enough. The real task is transformation. America urgently needs systems of education that live and breathe in the 21st century. This is a large task and it can't be put off.” Sir Ken Robinson

